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ABSTRACT

This collection of 19 papers focuses on implications of the professional standards recently developed jointly by the Council for Exceptional Children and Council on Education of the Deaf (CEC/CED). The following papers are included: (1) "Introduction: Helping the Professorate Implement the Standards" (Judy Egelston-Dodd); (2) "CED Standards: Meeting Diverse Needs through Collaboration" (Kathee Christensen); (3) "Using Cases and Case Methods in Teacher Preparation in Deafness" (Mary Compton and Susan Shroyer); (4) "Distance Learning through Telelinking" (Karen L. Dilka and Deborah Haydon); (5) "Model of Formal Collaboration between Two State Universities: Meeting the Challenge of the CEC/CED Standards" (Susan Easterbrooks and Joan Laughton); (6) "A Framework for Exploring Students' Personal Cultures: A Tool for Use in IEP Development" (Ruth Fletcher and Doris Paez); (7) "Multicultural Education Applications for Teachers of the Deaf: Creating Culturally Responsive Curricula" (Barbara Gerner deGarcia); (8) "Teacher Trainees' Classroom Communication Preferences" (Tom Jones); (9) "Results of a National Survey of Reading Instruction" (Carol LaSasso); (10) "Test-Taking Abilities of Deaf Students: A Missing Component of the Curriculum" (Carol LaSasso); (11) "Parents as Partners: Preparing Deaf Children for Bi-Bi Programs" (Carol LaSasso and Melanie Metzger); (12) "Visual Activities Using the Internet: Enhancing Experiential Learning, Concept Development and Literacy" (Pamela Luft); (13) "Using Electronic Dialogue Journals To Model Whole Language Procedures" (Pamela Luft); (14) "Teacher Subject Matter Competencies in Mathematics: Where Do We Go From Here?" (Claudia Pagliaro); (15) "Parental Improvement: Deaf versus Hearing Children" (Gerald Powers); (16) "Speech/Language Pathologist or Teacher of

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Deaf/Hard of Hearing: Who Is More Qualified To Serve?" (Gerald Powers and Christopher L. Schwilk); (17) "Can I Read between the Lines: An Outsider's Reflection on the CEC/CED Standards" (Rosemary Saur); (18) "The Relationship between ASL Skill and English Literacy" (Michael Strong and Philip Prinz); and (19) "Multicultural Needs of Students Who are Deaf: The Bilingual Experiences of a Deaf Native American" (James Woodenlegs). Individual papers contain references. (DB)

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ACE-DHH

The Association
of College Educators
Deaf and Hard of Hearing

MONOGRAPH
of
Collected Papers
from
23rd Annual Conference

Windows - 97
on the New Standards

March 7-10, 1997
Santa Fe, New Mexico

Edited

by

Judy Egelston-Dodd
National Technical Institute for the Deaf
at Rochester Institute of Technology
Rochester, NY

EC305461

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*Number in parentheses after paper titles designate the CED standard addressed by the presenters. For key to standard numbers, see last page of this monograph.

Introduction: Helping the Professorate Implement the Standards

by

Judy Egelston-Dodd
NTID at RIT
52 Lomb Memorial Drive
Rochester, NY 14623
Tel: 716-475-6932 (V/T)
FAX: 716-475-6500
E-mail: JCENMP@RIT.EDU

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This year's annual ACE-DHH conference was conceived by the Executive Board and officers as an opportunity to take time to talk to each other about the new CEC/CED standards. There is always an inevitable gap between the creation of new standards and their implementation, even beyond the two-year transition zone set for notification and marshaling of resources/talent to undertake the needed changes. It is also likely that there is an inevitable gap between our self assessment of our new "standards-based behaviors" and a true, strict assessment of that same behavior. Just getting the standards into our hands isn't enough! Fortunately, the collective wisdom of the ACE-DHH Board knows this and was willing to do something about it. Thus, our "Windows-97 on the New Standards."

We are devising new ways to create change so we can figure out how to get it accomplished. Bringing the professorate of Deaf Education teacher preparation programs together into on-going dialogue and finding ways to connect like-minded folks across time zones without schedule constraints is the function of our ACE-DHH 1997 annual conference. Our new standards need to be viewed as an exciting, intellectual challenge. Their implementation also needs to be perceived by the whole community as an ongoing effort with ample opportunities for feedback. This is the task at hand, and your program includes multiple opportunities to meet with the leaders of CED.

You are invited to read these collected papers as a base of scholarly endeavor which hopefully will initiate and stimulate continued dialog. We are a learning community and together our efforts will exceed any individual struggle for change. The abstracts of all posters and presented papers will be found in the June 1997 ACE-DHH Newsletter.

I wish to thank the members of the 1997 Conference Program Committee for their efforts in setting high standards of quality for our program sessions. I must acknowledge that responsibility for any errors in this final copy of the monograph is mine alone. I appreciate the advice and direction provided by President Shirin [illegible]ntia and the feedback and encouragement I received from the Executive Board. Ruth Fletcher, our Vice President and Site Coordinator, has been an excellent communicator and a real Santa Fe chauvinist pig! Her guidance on local resources and talent have been invaluable and are reflected in our outstanding speakers, food and lodging arrangements. Thank you, Ruth, for all your efforts in making the 1997 ACE-DHH conference a huge success.

Finally, I dedicate this volume (as our 1997 program was also dedicated) to Sr. Mary Delaney, Ph.D. Mary's scholarly contributions can be characterized as timely leadership. When you compare a timeline of her research, presentations, publications and teaching, it's easy to see that she led our field. As a story-teller, she was inspired, capturing our highlights and frustrations and reminding us that deafness itself is story-making. Of course, she was more than a teacher, scholar, story-teller...she was a friend, mentor, colleague, networker, saleswoman, leader and more! Mary inspired us and offered us sage insights into patterns in our field. She was a warm and exceptional colleague who generously mentored many of us throughout our careers. It pains us and all who knew her that Sr. Mary Delaney isn't with us here today to be a help to the future researchers, teachers and leaders in the field of Deaf Education.

CED Standards:
Meeting Diverse Needs Through Collaboration

by

Kathee M. Christensen
San Diego State University
Tel.: 619-594-6464
FAX: 619-594-1881
E-mail: kchriste@mail.sdsu.edu

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In a recent interview, the author John Edgar Wideman said that "if you don't write your story, someone else will--and they might not get it right!" I feel that way about the revision of professional standards--if you and I don't get involved, we may ultimately find ourselves governed by an organization or agency that knows very little about what we do--or aspire to accomplish. That was one of the reasons why I agreed to participate in the CED-CEC joint standards revision process that began several years ago and culminated in the document that you may have seen in volume 141 of the American Annals of the Deaf or volume 17 of the Journal of Childhood Communication Disorders, a publication of CEC.

In thinking back on the task that was presented to the standards revision team, I am reminded of the story about a prominent physician who was called upon to provide a complete physical exam for a patient who complained of a variety of aches and pains. After a thorough and extensive examination, the doctor could find no apparent problems. He informed the patient that she was in top condition, gave her a clean bill of health and proceeded to send her on her way. The patient got up, walked toward the exit, extended her hand toward the door knob, and fell flat on her face--dead. The doctor, without missing a beat, said to the nurse, "Quick, pick her up and turn her around so it looks like she was just coming in!" Most of us here carry the title of doctor--we are involved in a profession that has suffered aches and pains--and we now have prescribed a set of standards which, we feel, can lead us into a healthy future. Or, like the so-called healthy patient, will our standards fall flat and die? The answer to this question, for the most part, depends on decisions that we make at this meeting and at other meetings in the near future.

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) has been engaged in a national standards revision, also. They have published the results of this process in an informative and readable book entitled Standards for foreign language learning: Preparing for the 21st century (1996). In this book the authors take great care to clarify what a standards document **IS NOT and WILL NOT** do.

1. Standards do not describe the current state of education.
2. Standards will not be achieved overnight.
3. Standards are not a curriculum guide.
4. Standards will not provide solutions to all problems.
5. And a standards document is not a "stand-alone" document.

On the other hand, ACTFL suggests that national standards can be very useful. They **can** provide professional challenges.

1. Standards serve as a reflection of the best practice in the nation.
2. Standards suggest types of content and experience needed to enable students to achieve professional knowledge and skills.
3. Standards provide a gauge against which to measure change and progress.
4. And standards provide a channel to inform and influence others–such as state and local organizations and schools.

What are some of the professional challenges suggested by the revised CED-CEC standards document? What can we expect to accomplish with the implementation of these standards? Let's begin with an overview.

Figure 1 depicts potential relationships among national, state and local standards documents.

An obvious problem in our field is the fact that not all states, districts or schools have developed comprehensive standards documents for education of students who are deaf. As we move toward the 21st century, one of our first challenges as university professors is to collaborate with our state agencies to determine mutually compatible standards documents. When that is accomplished, the next task, of course, will be to collaborate with schools to develop comprehensive, state-of-the-art teaching/learning plans. Naturally, we will expect our graduates who are "out there in the field" to assist with this effort–to act as diplomatic agents for change. Wouldn't it be nice to visit a school where each and every classroom incorporates the best of current practice, consistently, with all students? Why not? As I often tell graduate students, if you can visualize change, you can achieve it! In fact, I think it is the responsibility of all of us to shake up the status quo and work toward changes which improve our profession.

Another challenge for us in the 21st century is to address the issue of outcomes. How will we assess our students so that we are really sure what they have gained from their time with us? And beyond that, how will graduates of our teacher preparation programs assess their own effectiveness as teachers?

Clearly we need to consider this challenge carefully, since effective assessment is closely tied to progress and innovation.

Figure 2. presents another area for consideration as we develop collaborative relationships across constituencies. Quantitative measures, although required by law in most schools, have not been very helpful in evaluation of teacher effectiveness or student outcomes. Prospective teachers of children who are deaf must be able to use qualitative (observational, ethnographic) strategies to evaluate not only the students, but themselves and each other. In my ideal classroom, video cameras will be standard issue so that teachers can review their own work, discuss it with peers, and seek professional input, as well as review student efforts and interactions. Many of you are involved with portfolio assessments and descriptive review protocols. In my conversations with you, you seem to feel that this approach to evaluation provides useful information about the strengths and weaknesses of your students. You can use this real-life information to adjust your lectures to the level of the students, fill in any perceived gaps, and make progress toward the realization of knowledge and skills as required by the CED standards. Others of you are still thinking about how this "call to assess outcomes" might be met in your own teacher prep. programs. One way to begin this process is through collaboration–in this organization–with other programs. The web page that Harold Johnson has set up is a way to get a dialogue started

As you may have noticed, none of the suggestions, so far, has been linked to philosophy. Effective implementation of standards and assessment of outcomes can and should be accomplished across philosophical boundaries. Often our discussions become mired in methodological debates and we are not able to move past that to a level of discussion which can assist all of us in achieving our mutual goal, which is the best possible preparation of teachers and ultimately the best possible educational options for children who are deaf. I have for the past two years been assigned to the SDSU President's office where I have the loosely interpreted title of Affirmative Action Coordinator. I have learned a lot in this job, however one fact has been extremely valuable to me as I meet with various groups of people to discuss the controversial topic of ethnic diversification. I have found that opponents of diversity are experts at holding their own ground and avoiding confrontation and change by moving a discussion as far away from the actual topic as possible, digressing to tangential issues, effectively and for prolonged periods of time. Basically, they win points by wearing out persons with a different opinion, confusing neutral participants, and avoiding the real issue–which is how we all can survive and live together in equity and harmony. Addressing that real issue would mean accepting the possibility of compromise, collaboration, and development of a new perspective on an old concept. That can be difficult to do, however the pay-off may be well worth the effort.

Speaking of Affirmative Action, you may have read about some of the challenges that have occurred recently in California. First there was Prop. 187 which tried to keep Mexicans and others from crossing the border into California–this despite the studies which prove that Mexican immigrants, documented with green cards or not, are some of the most responsible workers in our state. Then there was Prop. 209 which intended to eliminate discrimination by eliminating Affirmative Action. That legislation is on hold as the courts try to determine whether or not it is constitutional. And, most recently, we have the controversy about Ebonics. As you may know, the Oakland School Board voted to accept Ebonics as a natural dialect of many of their African American students. It was suggested that all teachers respect, and to the degree possible, understand the home language(s) of their students. The premise was that if teachers accepted the communication of the children as valid, they might use this natural dialect as a bridge to achieve standard English fluency. In fact, the Ebonics program was based, in part, on the research of John R. Rickford, a linguistics professor at Stanford University, who cited studies which suggested that a "bridge system" can help students move from a particular dialect to a standard language. One study, in particular, described a four-month program with 500 Black students around the country. These students used Black dialect, a transitional reader and then a standard English text. They gained 6.2 months progress in 4 months, as compared to a control group of remedial reading students who gained only 1.6 months in 4 months--in other words, they fell behind as a result of the remedial reading program. According to Rickford, "People seem to be endorsing existing methods, but existing methods are not working" (Washington Post, January 13, 1997). This move toward acceptance of Ebonics in the schools was an attempt to ameliorate dismal statistics compiled by the Board which revealed that 64% of students who repeat the same grade are Black. Black students have an average 1.8 GPA on a 4 point system, and of the Black males enrolled in Oakland schools, 29% do not attend school on a regular basis. Clearly the existing methods were not working. There was a need to do something different–to rethink and restructure the existing policies in the schools. The Linguistic Society of America endorsed the position of the Oakland School Board, calling the plan "linguistically and pedagogically sound," further stating that Black English or Ebonics is "systematic and rule-governed like all natural speech varieties." In the opinion of the LSA membership, the Oakland plan would help students master standard English. The American Speech-Language-Hearing Society (ASHA) also published a statement in support of Ebonics as a natural social dialect with its own lexicon, syntax, phonology and semantics. What happened next ? First of all, there was a strong reaction from some Hispanic educators. Questions were raised, such as: Who will pay for this? Will bilingual education funds be taken away from existing programs for bilingual students? Resource allocation became the priority rather than the support of human needs. Members of the African American community were not 100% behind the Ebonics decision either. Many of them, including Walter Williams an economics professor at George Mason University, expressed the fear that acceptance of Ebonics would dilute education for African American students and that they would never become proficient or literate in English. These students would have limited opportunities for higher education and employment. Critics of Ebonics say that a good education in Standard English is the ticket out of the slums. Acceptance of Ebonics, they say, is just building a ghetto wall around Black students. Does all of this have a familiar ring? If you take a close look at the arguments for and against Ebonics, you will see an almost exact replication of the ASL / English controversy that continues to exist in our field.

Figure 3: Critics of Ebonics / Critics of ASL

Cultural and linguistic data to the contrary, there are schools and programs that cling to practices that fail to promote educational excellence rather than explore ways to achieve academic and vocational success for all students who are Deaf. If the majority of deaf children were able to read and write at a level commensurate with their cognitive potential, we could spend time in philosophical discussions about the ways in which we might agree to disagree, professionally. At this time, however, theoretical rhetoric is a luxury we cannot afford. You don't spend time deciding which hose to use when your house is on fire. You try them all and see which ones get the job done. The fact is that our students continue to be undereducated and underemployed. Raising the standards for the professionals who teach Deaf children is a step in the right direction. Providing opportunities for enhanced communication among Deaf, hearing and hard-of-hearing individuals could lead to some collaborative efforts which benefit all of us. We've tried arguing and taking immovable stances on issues of communication and education--that hasn't worked. The new standards open up the possibility for renewed, objective dialogue among persons who may disagree and may accept, as valid, a variety of solutions to our educational dilemmas. Professional collaboration and ongoing professional dialogue are critical to the success of our profession–the success of children who are Deaf.

All of us would agree that the future of deaf students should not be left to chance. One of the ways in which we can ensure the best possible educational environment for all learners is to ensure that persons who hold teaching credentials are well prepared. Over the years, I have heard all too often the following statements: "What can CED do for schools?" or "CED doesn't do anything for schools." or "CED has no power to do anything for schools." My response to such statements is this: "YOU are CED!" CED is not a separate entity–it is a board which is made up of YOUR representatives. If you don't like what CED is doing–if you have suggestions for improvements--it is incumbent upon you to contact your CED representatives and engage in dialogue with them. They, in turn, have the responsibility to bring your concerns to the board where concerns and problems can be addressed and effective solutions determined. Nothing is accomplished at the complaint level. However, much can be accomplished when we collaborate to agree upon creative answers to some of the old problems which have lurked in the corners of our profession for years. CED is a unique entity–a collaborative board made up of representatives from all of our major professional organizations (ACEDHH, AGBell, ASDC, CAID, CEASD and NAD). It has as its mission the oversight of quality teacher preparation and effective educational programs.

Further, it is a body which can communicate and collaborate with other national organizations, for example CEC and ASHA, to further the cause of quality education for students who are deaf or hard-of-hearing. A couple of weeks ago, in a graduate seminar which I teach, we were discussing the dilemma of translation of English idioms into ASL and vice versa. One of the specific idioms which came up was "Don't throw the baby out with the bath water." (Have you ever tried to translate that one??) As I observed the students struggling to figure out the most accurate translation for that idiom, I caught glimpses of phrases such as, "What is most important? Don't destroy that." or "Keep the essence. Destroy the superficial." Those fragments of thoughts reminded me of the task we confronted when we began to revise the CED standards. We had to determine which aspects of the old document still made sense in today's world, which aspects were totally out of synch with contemporary education, and which new concepts should be included in a revised, state-of-the-art document. There was a need to address educational technology and multicultural issues, for example. Options for educational placement, parent collaboration, federal law, IEP and IFSP...and other issues were prime on our growing list of considerations. As we discussed these and other issues, it became apparent that the core of the document, quality educational services-the "baby" you might say--was still viable. The "bathwater"--all of the details which had flooded and drowned any reasonable consideration for effective implementation--needed to be thrown out and replaced with fresh ideas from several sources. In other words, the need for collaboration became obvious.

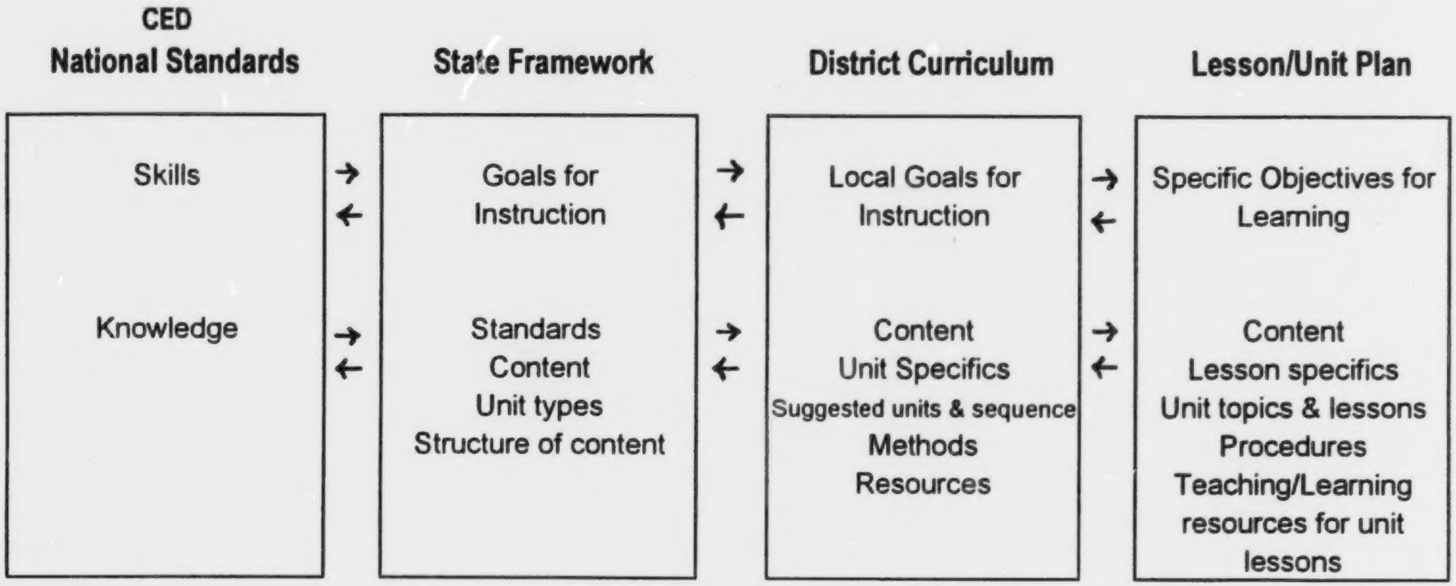
If you analyze the revised CED standards for evidence of the need to prepare our future teachers to work in a collaborative environment, you will see that 14 of the knowledge statements and 8 of the skills statements make specific reference to teamwork or professional collaboration. That is, 22 (exactly one-third) of the 66 knowledge and skills statements make a direct connection between best practice and collaboration. By the way, I have not included in this number the statements which refer to cultural knowledge and skill, although one would assume that collaboration with diverse communities would be essential in that domain, as well. My point is that the new standards require us to step down from the pedestal of Super Teacher, take a look around at all of the disciplines which will assist us in the job of providing highest quality education for children who are deaf, and create an environment where we collaborate with others and accept the challenge of on-going personal growth as teacher-scholars. My own personal favorite among the 66 knowledge and skills statements is number 61: New teachers must have the " ability to seek out a process for acquiring the needed skills in modes/philosophies of education of students who are Deaf or Hard-of-hearing in which the individual was not prepared." Collaboration is our ultimate challenge! We as university professors cannot possibly prepare our students for every single challenge that they will face in their professional lives. We can, however, help them to develop positive attitudes toward collaboration–give them permission to admit that they don't have all the answers and then show them how to build a support system that allows them to tap the resources of experts in a variety of related areas, from questions regarding communication issues to medical to vocational to social and beyond. As we progress in areas of collaboration, our students and their students will be the ultimate beneficiaries. The process, however, will not be easy. It is never easy to effect change or to shift an entrenched paradigm.

When I was asked for the title of this plenary talk, my first choice was "Standards: Taming the philosophical monster in the classroom." Catchy title, however I decided against it because someone else had come up with it first and I wouldn't want to be accused of plagiarism! The concept of the "philosophical monster" was described first by Kathe Jervis and Joseph McDonald in an article in the April, 1996 Phi Delta Kappan. This monster was a metphor for the reconciliation of child-focused (flexible, individualized) teaching with teaching according to a set of standards (rigid, theoretical); what McDonald has called the "reconciliation of head and heart." Jervis and McDonald are involved with the National Center for Restructuring Education, Schools and Teaching at Columbia University Teachers College. Some of the questions that they raise include: How do teacher's standards translate to student outcomes? What performance information do we get form standards? Is it possible for teachers to "stand back from the complexities of their jobs and reflect" on issues of assessment and outcomes? Some of the potential answers to these questions revolve around the implementation of descriptive reviews of students, portfolio meetings and group scoring, team collaboration and networking.

Further description of the innovative work of the NCRE can be found in a recent book by Kathe Jervis entitled Eyes on the child: Three portfolio stories, Teachers College Press, 1996. The book, itself, is fascinating and the appendices contain valuable perspective and principles related to school reform. I would like to see research in teacher preparation and education of children who are deaf follow this innovative, qualitative and pragmatic approach.

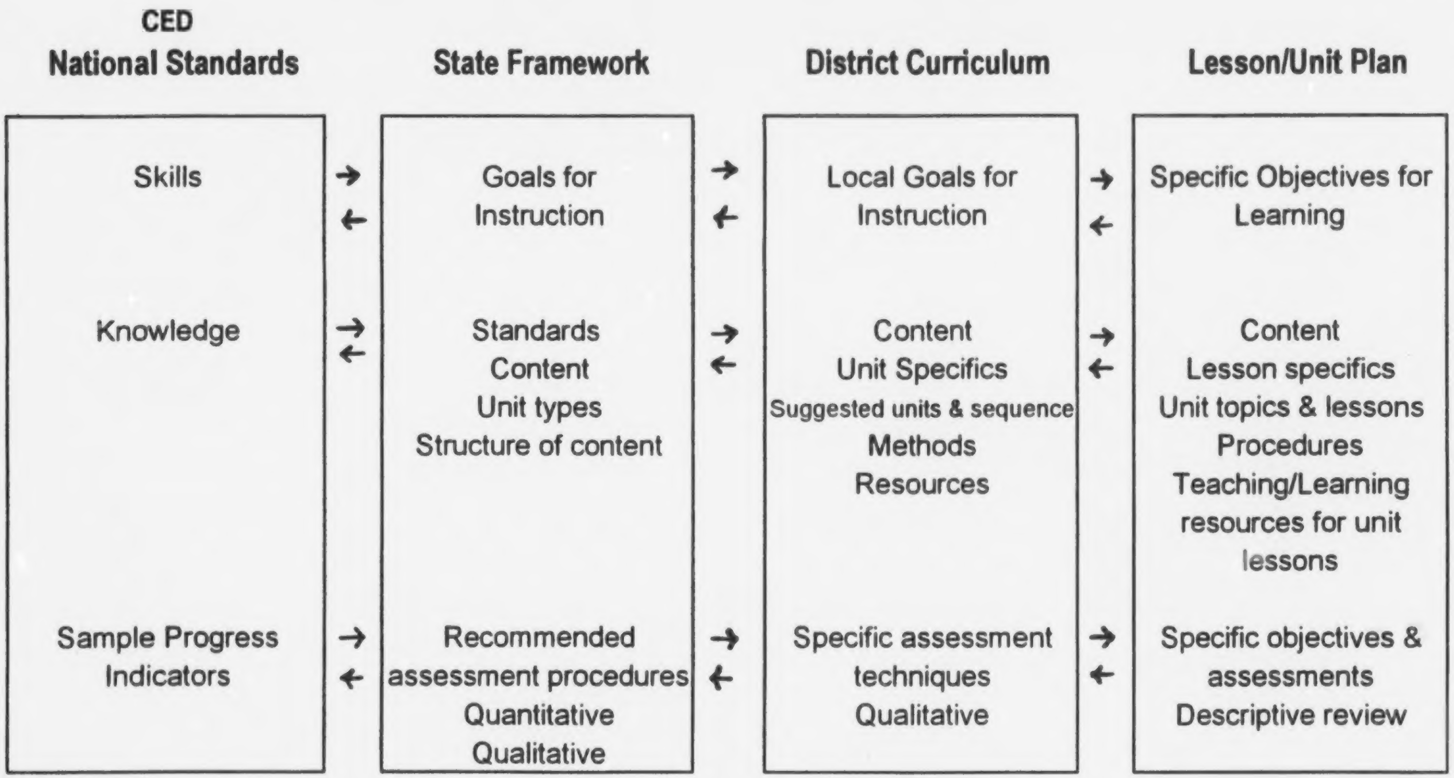
There is much to do in the field of education and there always will be much more to do. Collaboration, as reflected in the CED standards document, can help us to accomplish much more than we could with individual efforts alone.

Figure 1. The Relationships Among National, State, and Local Standards Documents


CED
National Standards
Skills
Knowledge
State Framework
Goals for Instruction
Standards
Content
Unit types
Structure of content
District Curriculum
Local Goals for Instruction
Content
Unit Specifics
Suggested units & sequence
Methods
Resources
Lesson/Unit Plan
Specific Objectives for Learning
Content
Lesson specifics
Unit topics & lessons
Procedures
Teaching/Learning resources for unit lessons

Adapted with permission from the
Visual Arts Education Reform Handbook: Suggested Policy Perspectives on Art Content and Student Learning in Art Education
National Art Education Association, 1995

Figure 2. The Relationships Among National, State, and Local Standards Documents: Assessment Component



CED National Standards		State Framework		District Curriculum		Lesson/Unit Plan
Skills	→ ←	Goals for Instruction	→ ←	Local Goals for Instruction	→ ←	Specific Objectives for Learning
Knowledge	→ ←	Standards Content Unit types Structure of content	→ ←	Content Unit Specifics Suggested units & sequence Methods Resources	→ ←	Content Lesson specifics Unit topics & lessons Procedures Teaching/Learning resources for unit lessons
Sample Progress Indicators	→ ←	Recommended assessment procedures Quantitative Qualitative	→ ←	Specific assessment techniques Qualitative	→ ←	Specific objectives & assessments Descriptive review

Adapted with permission from the
Visual Arts Education Reform Handbook: Suggested Policy Perspectives on Art Content and Student Learning in Art Education
National Art Education Association, 1995

CRITICS OF EBONICS	CRITICS OF ASL
1. AFRO-CENTRIC	1. DEAF POWER
2. STUDENTS WON'T LEARN ENGLISH	2. DITTO
3. STUDENTS WON'T BE COMPETITIVE IN THE JOB MARKET	3. DITTO
4. STUDENTS WON'T ASSIMILATE INTO THE MAJORITY CULTURE	4. DITTO
5. STUDENTS WILL FAIL ACADEMICALLY	5. DITTO

Using Cases and Case Methods in Teacher Preparation and Deafness

by

Mary V. Compton & Susan P. Shroyer
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Tel.: 910-334-5843
FAX: 910-334-3618
E-Mail: mvcompto@hamlet.uncg.edu

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Case studies have long been utilized in law, medicine, business and medical education pedagogy to facilitate students' problem-solving abilities and to provide authentic situations in which emerging professionals can apply and synthesize their learnings (Carter & Unklesbay, 1989). The reform of teacher education as evidenced in numerous national reports including the Holmes Group (1990), and the Association of Teacher Educators (1991) asserts the need for teacher preparation programs to consider strategies by which prospective teachers can gain expertise in analyzing and interpreting novel contexts in which they will teach. Prior to these initiatives, authors such as Shulman (1986), introduced the "knowledge of specific, well-documented, and richly described events" (L. Shulman, 1986, p. 11) as means by which prospective teachers can become more appropriately prepared to meet the ambiguities and complexities posed by teaching in the late 20th and into the 21st century. Consequently, the use of cases in education serves as a viable means of preparing pre-service teachers for the vagaries of "the real classroom world" (Kennedy, 1990).

Cases in education embody a personalized account in a short-story narrative of a real-life situation or event that incorporates a rich description of the context, participants, and reality of a critical incident that are edited to provide data for consideration and discussion. Cases may be categorized as exemplars, stimuli to analyze and contemplate action, or opportunities to generate personal reflection (Merseth, 1996). In exemplar cases, classroom vignettes that delineate models of best practices, or a general pattern of practice are described. In decision-based or dilemma cases, a problem is framed from which a teacher must take action or formulate and realize a decision based on analysis of the circumstances. Cases emphasizing personal reflection create opportunities for prospective teachers to integrate experience with self and external knowledge in formulating personal perspectives concerning a situation.

A rich corpus of cases in regular education have been developed by various writers such as Shulman and Mesa-Bains (1990) and Silverman, Welty and Lyon (1992). Cases have also been published by Allyn and Bacon as well as the Harvard Graduate School of Education (1994). The Case Research Journal offers a source for cases and research incorporating decision-based cases for pre-service public school personnel. Thus, it is apparent that cases and case methods of instruction are widely used in teacher preparation curricula in regular education. However, only one published case by Pitton in Cooper (1995) addresses deafness. In this case, a regular education speech communication teacher confronts her feelings about using an educational interpreter for a deaf student to complete a public speaking assignment.

As the roles of teachers of deaf and hard of hearing students emerge from the self-contained classroom to those of consultant and co-teacher to second-language and bi-cultural expert, faculty in teacher preparation programs face immense challenges as changing national competency and program standards demand. In order to meet such requirements, we posit that prospective teachers of deaf and hard of hearing students could benefit from the use of cases and case methods in constructivist teacher preparation curricula. The paucity of specific cases in deafness in which students can examine critical incidents related to teaching deaf and hard of hearing students creates opportunities to adapt available cases and to write decision-based cases concerning issues in deafness that can be useful in both regular and deafness teacher preparation curricula.

The authors have used six cases from the corpus of cases developed by Silverman, Welty and Lyon (1992), in two deafness methods courses. Although these cases did not emphasize deafness-related issues, they focused on mainstreaming, diversity, behavior management, and parental support issues that are germane to any teaching experience. The decision-based cases were selected and compiled in a custom-published format with a teaching notes booklet for instructor use. The teaching notes outlined questions for discussion which were augmented by instructor-devised questions related to deafness. Following an hour discussion period of each case during which the instructor asked open-ended and focusing questions and recorded students' comments on the board, students wrote their cognitive and affective perceptions of the case. The students also included their comments concerning their evaluation of the read-discuss-write format. These comments were positive, which has furthered our interest in developing cases of our own. We determined that decision-based cases were most appropriate for our prospective teachers in that they present a dilemma or problem which must be faced by a teacher of deaf and hard of hearing students who must use available information to reach a solution to a problem in a "thinking on your feet" fashion. These types of cases offer a productive contextual framework which serves to stimulate the exchange of multiple perspectives from which to view a problematic event or situation (Doyle, 1990; Shulman, 1992).

In writing decision-bases deafness-related cases, we are following the guidelines outlined by Welty and Silverman (n.d.) which focus on choosing a critical incident, describing the context in which the incident occurs, identifying the players, and reviewing the incident and the response the players had to the incident. As we develop our cases, we are engaging in a discussion of the incidents, the amount of information we wish to present, and the perspective from whom the story is recounted. The cases we are writing have emerged from our sharing diverse experiences in teaching deaf and hard of hearing students. Thus, we are reflecting on our own courses of action which constitute intensely personal contemplations.

Critical incidents we are exploring include: parental choice of communication modality, miscommunication between a teacher of the deaf and regular classroom teacher, lack of administrative support for a student's self-esteem needs, and a parent's quest for an educational interpreter. In selecting these critical incidents we have outlined the uncertainty of the situations and examined their emotional power in engaging prospective teachers. For example, in ***Joanie Bryant and Nanette Rogers***, a first year resource teacher of deaf students (Joanie), attempts to coordinate lessons with a fourth grade veteran social studies teacher (Nanette). Joanie has spent a week in preparing lessons concerning transportation for a deaf student in Nanette's class. As she walks into the workroom on Monday morning, Nanette greets Joanie with the news that she has decided to teach a unit on natural resources that she will begin that very morning. Nanette vociferously states she resents having to tell Joanie in advance what she plans to teach; while Joanie hides her frustration and feelings of inadequacy in being able to help her student. In discussing this incident, issues concerning mainstreaming, collaboration, organizational climate, and teaching strategies surface.

We have found that the use of cases, case methods of instruction, and the writing of cases has engendered collaboration with colleagues as well as our students as we deepen our understanding of the process of becoming and continuing to grow as teachers of deaf and hard of hearing students.

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Distance Learning Through Telelinking

by

Karen L. Dilka and Deborah Haydon
Eastern Kentucky University
Wallace 245
Richmond, KY 40475
Tel.: 606-622-4442 (V/T)
FAX: 606-622-4398
E-mails: SEDDILKA@acs.eku.edu.
SEDHAYDON@acs.eku.edu.

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Many teacher preparation programs in the field of deafness encompass a large geographical service area. It is imperative for program faculty to provide quality training to students who are located in areas a considerable distance from campus. In an effort to accommodate these prospective teachers and "reach out" to other individuals, different forms of technology are currently in use. Computer courses, satellite classes and interactive TV (compressed video) are considered a few alternative ways to address the issue. The program goal is to meet the needs of students by providing access to instruction while enhancing the learning experience.

Compressed video is a system that transmits voice and video via high speed digital telephone lines to connected classroom sites within the region. This communication vehicle allows for the delivery of coursework statewide and it provides students with an opportunity to participate in the basic design and structure of an on-campus classroom.

Instructors have the flexibility of monitoring several sites simultaneously or focusing on individual members of the class. In addition, sites have the capability of viewing other sites, permitting an exchange of group information and ideas essential to the educational process. Often, successful teaching on two-way television is measured by the level of active, not passive, involvement students have in class assignments during the semester.

Application of compressed video technology requires a change in teaching behaviors and strategies for some professionals. The studio setting is not conducive to a traditional lecture format, and if used continuously, it is a very ineffective method for conveying information. Also inherent in the transmission of compressed video, is an impersonal aspect that dictates the inclusion of a variety of activity based instructional and multimedia options. Approaches that incorporate students as responsible participants such as group or panel discussions, interviews, debates, role playing, performance events, and short demonstrations or reports stimulate interest and encourage interaction. Furthermore, to augment the presentation of a topic, visuals, photographs, and real objects can be easily displayed on network devices. The integration of slides, videotapes and computer generated graphics also expedite the teaching of content through this medium and promote retention of the subject matter. To interface the appropriate tools (power point, document or video camera) and curriculum materials, advanced preparation is crucial. Smooth transitions between these different components during the class session will contribute to the overall understanding and comprehension of the students. Otherwise, the focus becomes the "production" not the "substance" of the course.

One advantage of compressed video is the ability to introduce guest speakers into the class from any facility or location. The convenience expands the realm of availability for experts in the discipline. It is also possible to coordinate and schedule times to access seminars or workshops on satellite. Relevant information can then be videotaped, saved and reviewed at a later date or used as a supplementary resource for the course/program. Computers at each site are connected to the internet and a wide range of research oriented projects can be developed, enabling students to experiment with other forms of technology. Students at several different sites can work together on class requirements or just share their knowledge through e-mail. Similarly, instructors can also maintain daily contact with students through e-mail.

Another advantage of compressed video, reserved for the instructor, is a mechanism to critique one's own teaching style. Each class session is automatically videotaped for distribution to sites to guard against interference of the broadcast due to technical difficulties. By watching the tape, an instructor can assess their performance, compare it with student responses and evaluate the progress of the class. Problems can be identified from this valuable function and techniques implemented to improve teaching skills.

Programs that serve rural and statewide populations can benefit from utilizing compressed video for instructional purposes. An array of creative coursework can result while meeting the needs of students.

Model of Collaboration Between Two Universities: Meeting the Challenge

by

Susan R. Easterbrooks
Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA 30303-3083
Tel.: 404-651-0125
FAX: 404-651-4901
E-mail: SPESRE@langate.gsu.edu

Joan M. Laughton
Department of Communication Sciences and Disorders
570 Aderhold Hall
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602-7151
Tel.: 706-542-6157
FAX: 706-542-5877
E-mail: laughton@gsu.cc.gsu.edu

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The concept of collaboration has been with us in one form or another for many years (Winitzky, Sheridan, Crow, Welch, & Kennedy, 1995). Much has been written about the importance of collaboration at the university level in special education (Friend & Cook, 1992). It has been applied at the course level (Reinhiller, 1996), the practicum level (Phelan & McEwan, & Pateman, 1996), and the university/school level (Paul, Duchnowski, & Danforth, 1993) in a number of ways, including the Professional Development Schools effort (Powell & McGowan, 1995). Numerous models of collaboration have been proposed (Corn & Erin, 1996) including **distance learning, outreach education,** and **alternative access programs.**

The purpose of this paper is to describe a unique process of collaboration between two universities to provide master's degree programs in education of students who are deaf and hard of hearing. This approach has never been documented before (Johnson, 1996) and provides a solution to the teacher preparation problem faced by one state.

History of Deaf Education in Georgia

Over the years, universities in the state of Georgia have made many attempts to prepare teachers of students who are deaf or hard of hearing. Valdosta State University, located in the southernmost region of the state, and West Georgia College offered certification courses at the undergraduate level for a while. Emory University, the only program in the state ever to have had CED certification, closed its master's program in 1979. The high cost of private school tuition within the umbrella of a medical college made the program costprohibitive. The University of Georgia has offered a master's degree program off and on for about 25 years. This program has not enrolled new majors for the past year. Georgia State University has had an on-going program in deaf education for over 30 years. UGA never obtained certification because it has not in the past been able to meet CED's infamous "two-man rule" for faculty FTEs. (When Emory's CED certified program added the second position, it was the financial death knell for the program.) GSU has never been CED certified (a) because of the two-man rule and (b) because, for a variety of reasons, there was never any interest to do so. Consequently, the situation has been in need of an overhaul.

Current Status

Two major events have occurred which are impacting the status of education of deaf students in the state. First, the entire university system of the state of Georgia, which is under one administrative umbrella, will convert to a semester system in the Fall of 1998. This has caused every university in the entire state to revisit every one of its programs simultaneously across a common time frame and through a common paper process. Second, attrition has resulted in a change in faculty in the program at Georgia State University. This new faculty member was given the directive of bringing the program up to CED standards. With these new pieces in play, the two programs have joined forces to take advantage of the current air of collaboration within the state and the support of both administrative hierarchies to work collaboratively to obtain CED certification for both programs.

The Model

Figure 1 provides an overview of the relationship between the UGA and GSU programs. Students will begin each program with a set of foundation courses prescribed by the different universities. Although more similar than different, these foundation courses are unique to each university primarily in the way the material is delivered and how it is viewed within the overall model of each university. Upon completion of the fundamentals, the students from the two universities will meet for six core courses, three each to be taught by the two participating professors. In this manner, students from both universities will benefit from two perspectives on education of students who are deaf or hard of hearing. Courses taught jointly will be housed either at site within the state university system which is approximately equidistant from each university or will be taught via distance learning. Students around the state who have access to distance learning sites will be able to take these courses at their rural or remote sites, thus reducing the number of on-site courses they will have to take.

Figure 1

Culminating Courses and Practice Taken Separately

Six Shared Courses

Foundation Coursework Taken Separately

Shared Advisory Committee

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Upon completion of the six core courses, students will take additional course work and practicum from their separate universities. These courses build on the core and provide further program specification.

The second component of commonality is that the programs share an advisory committee which will provide guidance and program direction. This way students will benefit from multiple perspectives. UGA's program follows a habilitation/early childhood model; GSU's program follows a classroom/multiple disabilities model. This provides students with an option of the focus they want to pursue, and the state benefits from having multiple paths to prepare teachers. Both programs meet state certification requirements.

Pros and Cons of the Approach

The major benefit of this approach is that it will provide the state with CED certified teachers of students who are deaf/hard of hearing and who have had the opportunity to prepare in two different paths, thus increasing the range of knowledge and skills available within the teaching community. In addition, the students will benefit from multiple perspectives, the major rationale behind CED's FTE requirement. The possible problems with this approach are that it is highly dependent upon the positive collaborative relationship between the two faculty members involved and the continued financial support from the state for collaboration and the use of alternative pathways to certification. We feel confident that the first will not be an issue, and that, given the billion-dollar lottery support for technology and education which prevails, the second concern is not likely to arise. We offer this as a new approach to meeting a long-standing obstacle to CED certification of programs in education of students who are deaf or hard of hearing.

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Exploring Students' Personal Cultures: A Tool for Use in IEP Development

by

Ruth Fletcher-Carter and Doris Paez
New Mexico State University
Department of Special Education/Communication Disorders
Tel: 505-646-2402 (V/T)
E-mail: rfletche@nmsu.edu
E-mail: dpaez@nmsu.edu

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Deaf students who may be members of more than one cultural group (e.g., Deaf and Black, Deaf and Asian, Deaf and Native American, Deaf and Hispanic) seldom encounter teachers who are Deaf, let alone Deaf *and* representative of their ethnic/racial group. Such bi- or multi-culturality among students who are Deaf requires that teachers gain an understanding of the different shared knowledge; belief systems; ways of living in the world and acquired knowledge that people use to interpret experience and to generate social behavior (Bennett, 1995).

So how do teachers of the Deaf identify, let along attend to, the variations in beliefs, traditions, and values across cultures and within society that may impact their students' world view or personal cultures?

Application of the Personal Culture Framework

The Personal Culture Framework includes a strategy for exploring a students' personal culture and provides school personnel, particularly teachers, with a list of cultural features which they can incorporate into their curriculum and/or approaches to the child and his/her family. The framework includes forms for identifying personal culture variables and generating curricula adaptation. The *Student's Personal Culture Form* (Appendix A) is to be utilized by teachers to identify the cultural variables within four dimensions and across five loci which influence the child. A second form, the *Personal Culture Curricular Strategy Form* (Appendix B), is used to summarize findings from the *Student's Personal Cultural Form* and to generate strategies for approaching cultural variables no shared across the five loci. Educators are cautioned, however, that in completing the *Personal Culture Form* they do not overgeneralize nor rely solely on stereotypical information found in the literature.

The exploration of students' personal cultures requires the use of *cultural brokers* (Correa, 1989). These brokers are individuals who provide a bridge between cultures and can be used as informants, mediators, and/or advocates. As cultural brokers, they can share information regarding cultural values, attitudes, and behaviors; issues related to group membership; experiences associated with minority status; and transforming life events. Depending on the situation, parents, other family members, or members of the community may act as cultural brokers (Correa, 1989). They may be found within the school: bilingual educators, English as Second Language specialists, migrant educators, Chapter 1 teachers, and staff. Functionally, the use of a cultural broker requires that the teacher discuss all of the variables in the *Student's Personal Culture Form* with as many brokers as possible.

Having accepted the paradigm of Personal Cultures influenced by family, neighborhood, vicinity/community and school, and having further accepted the paradigm of a framework in which to record the various influences, how can a teacher put the information from cultural brokers to work in the classroom and with the families?

Following are the six steps used in applying the *Student's Personal Culture Framework* which includes the use of the *Student's Personal Culture* and *Curricular Strategy Forms* with the cultural broker(s): **Step 1:** Based on information gathered from cultural broker(s) informant(s) and research, the teacher writes down key words/phrases to complete each cell in the Personal Culture Form; **Step 2:** The teacher circles the variables on the Personal Culture Form which are NOT SHARED across the five locus columns: (a) family, (b) neighborhood, (c) vicinity/community; (d) school, and (e) child; **Step 3:** The teacher lists the variables not shared in the first column of the *Curricular Strategy Form*; **Step 4:** The teacher circles the Loci which do not share the variable in column 2 of the *Curricular Strategy Form*; **Step 5:** Teacher and cultural broker(s) generate strategies for addressing these NOT SHARED variables within the four dimensions–these curricular strategies are written in column 3 of the *Curricular Strategy Form*; and **Step 6:** Strategies are then included in curricular methods and content for students' Individualized Educational Plans (IEPs).

The personal cultural framework requires educators to obtain information that is beyond holiday/tourism curriculum. Historical experiences, migration pattern, accomplishments of members of the group, values, and belief systems and communication styles are also to be addressed (Garcia & Malkin, 1993).

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STUDENT'S PERSONAL CULTURE FORM

Student's Name:		L	O	C	U	S
DIMENSIONS	CULTURAL VARIABLES	Family	Neighborhood	Vicinity/ Community	School	Child
Cultural Values, Attitudes and Behaviors	Demographic Influences (urban, suburban, rural)					
	Verbal Behaviors (the what, how, when , where and why of language)					
	Nonverbal Behaviors (show of affection, meaning of common facial expression/ gestures, use of space)					
	Achievement Orientation / Education Level					
	Temporal Orientation (past-, present-, future-oriented)					
	Thinking/Cognitive Processes					
	Religious/Spiritual Affiliations					
	Leisure Activities (recreation, sports, hobbies, stress relievers)					
Sense of Group Membership	Dominant Ethnic Identity (country of origin, national affiliations, ethnic density)					
	U.S. Generational Context (first-, second-, third-generation, etc.)					
	Socio-economic Status (low, middle, high)					
	Decision-making/ Action-taking Attitudes					
	Observances (holidays, celebrations, ceremonies)					
	Family Definition (influence of family/kin)					
Experiences Associated with Minority Status	Sociopolitical Context (immigration pattern, resident status, experiences with racism)					
Transforming Life Events	Normal Events (developmental transitions)					
	Critical Events (traumatic events, illness, surgeries)					

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CURRICULAR STRATEGY FORM		
CULTURAL VARIABLES	LOCUS F=Family N= Neighborhood V=Vicinity/Community S=School C=Child	STRATEGIES
	F N V S C	
	F N V S C	
	F N V S C	
	F N V S C	
	F N V S C	
	F N V S C	
	F N V S C	
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Multicultural Education Applications for Teachers of the Deaf: Creating Culturally Responsive Curriculum

by

Barbara Gerner deGarcía, Ed.D.
Gallaudet University
800 Florida NE
Washington, DC 20002-3695
Tel.: 202 651-5207
FAX: 202-651-5710
E-mail: bgernerdegar@gallua.gallaudet.edu

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The Need for Culturally Responsive Curriculum

Ethnic and racial diversity in schools and programs for the deaf, is rapidly increasing with approximately 40 percent of school-age deaf children from culturally diverse backgrounds (Schildroth & Hotto, 1994). At the same time, only about 10 percent of teachers of the deaf are from racially and/or ethnically diverse backgrounds (Andrews & Jordan, 1993). As of December 1990, the Council on Education of the Deaf (CED), requires teacher preparation programs to include multicultural perspectives (Christensen, 1993). However, teachers already in the field, who may not have had this training, need theoretical information, mentors, models of best practices, instructional strategies, resources, relevant materials, and support systems for meeting the needs of diverse deaf students.

Accomplishing this requires not only individual change, but institutional change. Multicultural education is a movement for educational reform that aims to restructure education for equity. Educational equity means that all students, regardless of their racial/ethnic background, socioeconomic class, ability/disability, religion or gender will have equal opportunities to learn and achieve (Banks & Banks, 1993).

Project THREADS

Project THREADS, Transformations for Humanistic and Responsive Education for All Deaf Students, focuses on developing a model for increasing the multicultural competence of in-service teachers of the deaf to become leaders for the construction of culturally responsive school environments. Project THREADS is designed to facilitate changes in individual teachers, and changes in their institutions while working to develop best practice multicultural education models that are relevant to the education of the deaf students.

Twenty-two teachers in teams, from 10 schools and programs for the deaf are being trained over the course of three years. The project provides a one week summer institute at Gallaudet, and a distance education component throughout the school year for academic credit. The sites are geographically representative, and include day schools, residential schools, and public school classes for deaf students. The project has an administrator who is a liaison at each site, and an Advisory Board.

During the first Summer Institute, teachers were introduced to the theories of multicultural education, and implications for deaf education. During the school year, teachers conducted needs assessments at their sites. During the second Institute, the topic was multicultural curriculum using constructivist approaches to teaching. During the current school year, teachers are revising and modifying their classroom curriculums and instructional strategies. In Year Three, teachers will begin broader implementation, and dissemination at a school-wide level.

Creating Culturally Responsive Curriculum

What does multicultural curriculum for deaf students include and what does it mean? What educational practices are most compatible with a multicultural perspective? How do pre-service and in-service teachers of the deaf learn to develop culturally responsive curriculum for deaf and hard of hearing students? The second THREADS Institute provided the teachers with a framework for constructivist versus traditional curriculum, interdisciplinary thematic teaching, materials evaluation, and identification of resources.

Curriculum theory which is abstract seems to lack concrete classroom applications if taught in isolation. What understandings of constructivist curriculum are the most helpful to teachers? McNeil provides a contrast between traditional and constructivist approaches to curriculum development. He notes that while traditional approaches emphasize attainable and predictable outcomes, constructivist approaches value unpredictable outcomes. Content is not rigid, predetermined and formulaic, but rather it is based on each learner's "current understanding " as the starting point. Rather than planning specified activities in advance, activities evolve as each learner proceeds (p. 12). When teachers understand this contrast, they are more in control of their classrooms because they can articulate their philosophy. Rather than seeing their teaching style as their idiosyncratic approach, they begin to understand how they fit into a particular model of curriculum.

Wood (1997) characterizes the constructivist approach in a way that may be familiar to many teachers of the deaf: "children ...need to construct their own knowledge, personally, by using their different cognitive strengths, through direct experiences, whenever feasible and through opportunities to interact with adults and peers " and "(m)otivation will be stronger if unit activities and lessons capitalize on the children's interests, working styles, and learning styles (p. 62).

Teacher Applications

The challenge when working with teacher practitioners is building their knowledge base at both the theoretical and practical applications levels simultaneously. Most teachers are seeking applications that can be used immediately in their own settings. This is not meant to imply that teachers always want recipes, but that teachers want materials, ideas, and activities that they can use when designing their classroom curriculum. As teacher educators, we feel the need to provide theory. Teacher practitioners, who face children everyday, want inspiration, resources, and utilitarian approaches.

A goal when developing an understanding of constructivist approaches is the empowerment of teachers to name what they may do already, or to explain why they may feel dissatisfied with traditional curriculum approaches. One teacher when describing things she already was doing said that they had been exploring ethnic communities in the neighboring city that had a large and varied Asian and Hispanic/Latino population. However, she had not realized that this approach could be labeled as constructivist.

Another teacher, decided to throw out the textbook when teaching her World History class this year. Her chosen theme was "Independence Movements" beginning with Ghandi. Initially, the students were lost without a book, specific worksheets to fill out, and tests with close-ended answers. There were a number of adjustments they had to make, but they loved the new approach. At the beginning of the unit, the students did a Know/Want to Learn/Learned (KWL) exercise to set the parameters for their work. By repeating this at the end, they realized how much they had learned. They made connections with prior knowledge they had been exposed to repeatedly through the years. They discovered that Martin Luther King Jr. used civil disobedience and non-violent protest methods developed by Ghandi. Library and research skills proved to be a weakness of the students, a discovery that might not have been made without using this approach.

Another teacher's preliminary plans included a thematic unit focusing on the right to vote. Students learned about the struggle of women and African Americans, and voting rights in the new South Africa.

Teaching Methods in Teacher Education

In teaching constructivist theory, it would be paradoxical to use traditional teaching methods. Teacher practitioners have little tolerance for such contradictions. As a teacher participant in the early 90s in Whole

Language Literacy training, I sat for several hours a day in an auditorium listening to various experts who told us to use active learning, and student-centered approaches. Many of the teachers in that Literacy Institute vocally noted the inconsistency. Therefore much planning went into making the THREADS Institute a model of participatory active learning.

During their first summer, teacher immersed themselves in the Deaf cultural environment of Gallaudet; the focus the second year was on Washington, DC as the premier African American city rich with Black History. We began the week with two experiences that profoundly affected the teachers. Sunday morning we attended a Black church with a ministry for the Deaf. One teacher described being with people who so openly and jubilantly expressed their faith as taking him out of his comfort zone. Another, who grew up on a farm in Minnesota, commented that if Lutherans had acted this way in church, she would have had a whole lot more fun going to church. We learned more in a little over two hours about the centrality of the church in the African American community than reading numerous books could have conveyed. The sermon addressed racism; the choir was made up entirely of Black men; and the church was full at 7:45 in the morning.

During the afternoon, we were led on a Black History tour of DC by two native Washingtonians to well-known sites such as the Frederick Douglass House (overlooked often because of its location in Anacostia, a troubled section), and less obvious places such as the Arlington National Cemetery. The idea that a cemetery could be a rich place for Black History was surprising to them.

In teaching teachers using the methods we tell them to use with their students, we can make a profound impact. My co-teacher and I worked to model responsive education. Recalling McNeil, we made adjustments to the schedule (content is not rigid, predetermined and formulaic) adding sessions and reacting to concerns (making new sessions optional and providing alternative activities), and finding unexpected outcomes. A speaker from Puerto Rico spoke in Spanish using trilingual interpreters. Speaking Spanish, without being interrupted by pausing for English translation, the speaker conveyed intense emotions. However, one of the interpreters was incomprehensible to the hearing teachers, and they were frustrated. Initially, they thought that this was an intentional exercise to convey the daily struggles of Deaf people. The discomfort , although not intentional, created an unplanned learning experience.

The challenge of helping teacher practitioners create culturally responsive curriculum for deaf students means taking risks. As teacher educators, we must walk the walk, not just talk the talk. We must be willing to leave our comfort zones, to become models of constructivist practice, and learners along side the practitioners with whom we work.

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Teacher Trainees' Classroom Communication Preferences

by

Thomas W. Jones
Department of Education
Gallaudet University
Tel.: 202-651-5530
FAX: 202-651-5860
E-mail: twjones@gallua.gallaudet.edu

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Communication is often problematic in "contact-signing" situations with mixtures of individuals who are deaf, hard of hearing, and hearing, and a wide range of sign language skills and preferences for both receptive and expressive language. Regardless of whether ASL, spoken English, or simcom is used, problems are inherent in every option, including problems of accessibility, turn-taking, signal interference, and cost. Even with facilitation by an interpreter, some individuals will be able neither to understand nor to participate as fully as others.

Teacher preparation programs in deaf education are particularly "at-risk" for the problems inherent in situations with individuals having varying abilities to receive and express language visually and auditorily. Several recent trends account for these difficulties: goals to increase the number of qualified deaf and hard of hearing teachers, emphases on recruiting diverse student bodies; increased priority on increasing graduates' sign language proficiency; and increased use of discussions and group work—rather than straight lecture—to facilitate learning in teacher education programs.

Graduate classes in the Education Department at Gallaudet University frequently include mixtures of deaf, hard of hearing, and hearing individuals, and a wide range of sign language skills and preferences. Regardless of the communication arrangements which the instructor or students decide, some of the problems outlined above occur, and students suffer by being left out or missing course content.

The purpose of the present study was to ascertain the communication preferences of graduate students in the teacher preparation program in Deaf Education at Gallaudet University. A one-page questionnaire was distributed to the 76 current full-time master's students in the program. Thirty-seven (49%) of the students returned the questionnaires, 40 percent of whom were deaf or hard of hearing, and 49 percent of whom were first-year students.

With the directions for completing the questionnaire, the students were given information on the advantages and disadvantages of five different communication options: (1) voice-off signing, no interpretation; (2) voice-off signing, voice interpreter for those desiring it; (3) simcom, no interpretation; (4) simcom, parallel ASL interpretation; and (5) voice only, ASL interpretation). They were asked to indicate which of the five options were their first and second choices for four communication situations: "receiving information from the instructor;" "receiving information from my classmates;" "providing information to the instructor;" and "providing information to my classmates." Regardless of the communication situation, hearing status, or stage in the program, the students indicated an overwhelming preference for voice-off signing without an interpreter, and a consistent disdain for simcom.

The students also were invited to provide comments on the questionnaire. Five themes were repeated in their comments:

- Voice-off helps students become better signers.
- Various options cause some students to miss information in class.

- Future teachers of deaf students should have good sign language skills.
- The instructor's signing skill should be a determining factor in the use of an interpreter.
- ASL is a language of the deaf and should be mandatory in the Gallaudet experience.

Although limited in scope and confined to a somewhat unique environment, five specific conclusions can be derived from this study:

- Communication preferences are essentially the same for deaf and hearing students, and for 1st- and 2nd-year students.
- Almost all students prefer voice-off signing for all classroom communication.
- Conversely, most students do not see a need to accommodate (nor even to tolerate) different communication preferences, backgrounds, or needs.
- Almost none of the students prefers simcom, especially with a parallel interpreter, regardless of the interaction.
- Concerns about developing sign language skills outweigh concerns about missing course content.

These conclusions raise issues for a number of situations, but especially for other teacher education programs with diverse student populations in which sign language skill is a priority. First, programs should recognize that without a common language base, in terms of both receiving and expressing language, all students cannot be on an equal footing. While a program may desire to increase the number of qualified deaf and hard-of-hearing teachers it prepares, having them rely on interpreters puts them at a disadvantage compared to hearing teacher trainees, especially in terms of participation in class discussions and group activities. While interpreters may facilitate the communication environment, the role of the interpreter should be flexible, and hearing individuals, including faculty members, may need to be the ones who are viewed as the interpreters' clients, rather than the students who are deaf.

Second, with increasingly diverse student populations—especially diversity in ability to *receive* language in either an auditory or visual mode—both teacher educators and teacher trainees need to be more accommodating of individual needs and preferences. Finding practical ways to do this is not simple. Ideally, teacher educators in deaf education need the facility to switch languages, modes, and codes—which is good modeling for future teachers of deaf and hard-of-hearing students, as well as facilitating communication in a diverse classroom. Teacher educators also need to expand communication in their classes to include greatly increased use of print and computer media, learning centers, activities, and peer tutoring to facilitate communication and learning.

Finally, while teacher preparation programs should not ensure that incoming students have sufficient hearing to understand speech, they can ensure that incoming students and teacher educators are able to receive and to use sign language and thereby reduce the range of communication needs in the teacher education classroom. Increasing the diversity of teachers of deaf and hard of hearing students and ensuring their sign language proficiency are extremely desirable goals. While these goals may have introduced a communication dilemma in teacher education classrooms, resolving that dilemma will result in better-prepared teachers for students who are deaf and hard of hearing.

RESULTS OF A NATIONAL SURVEY OF READING INSTRUCTION FOR DEAF STUDENTS

by

Carol J. LaSasso and Robert T. Mobley
Department of Education
Gallaudet University
800 Florida Avenue
Washington, DC, 20002
Tel.: 202-651-5530
FAX: 202-651-5860
E-mail: CJLASASSO@gallua.edu
E-mail: RTMOBLEY@gallua.edu

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Purpose: This study updates information from earlier studies of instructional practices used to develop deaf and hard-of-hearing (d/hh) students' reading abilities (Coley & Bockmiller, 1980, Bockmiller & Coley, 1981; Marshman, 1974; Hasenstab & McKenzie, 1981; LaSasso, 1978, 1987). Among the areas addressed in the present survey were: (1) the organizational frameworks (theoretical or methodological) that programs use for reading instruction, (e.g., basal reader, Whole Language, etc.), (2) the extent to which Reading Milestones is used, (3) program satisfaction with Reading Milestones; and (4) usage of standardized tests and portfolios with d/hh students.

Method: Questionnaires were sent to the 798 programs listed in the 1993 AAD Directory. The person most familiar with the reading program was asked to complete the 8-page questionnaire. Usable questionnaires were received from 267 instructional programs (33.5 percent of those surveyed) representing 13,598 d/hh children.

Major Findings: Several findings suggest that the use of basal readers with d/hh children may be declining: (1) 72 percent of the programs in the present study - compared to 81 percent of the programs in the earlier survey (LaSasso, 1987) - report usage of basal readers with d/hh students; (2) Compared to the earlier study, smaller percentages of programs in the current survey cite usage of basals as the primary (as opposed to supplementary) method of reading instruction with d/hh children: Specifically, for 5-8 year old students 35 percent of the programs in the current study (compared to 64 percent in 1987) cite basals as the primary method of instruction; for 9-12 year old students, 36 percent (compared to 69 percent in 1987) cite basal usage; for 13-14 year old students, 18 percent (compared to 38 percent in 1987) cite basal usage; and for students 15 years and older, 8 percent (compared to 11 percent in 1987) cite basals as the primary method of instruction.

A major finding of the 1987 study related to the extensive usage of Reading Milestones (1981-1984) and program satisfaction with it, despite the fact that the series was new. A goal of the present study was to determine whether Reading Milestones is still used extensively and whether programs are still satisfied with the program. Our findings reveal that although there appears to be an overall reduction in use of basal readers with d/hh students, a greater proportion of programs using basal readers are using Reading Milestones (30 percent of those in the present study). For 5-8 year old d/hh children, Reading Milestones was reported three times more often than for the next most frequently-reported basal reader. We view it somewhat problematic that only half of the programs selecting Reading Milestones reported they did so because of their "experience that the program had worked well with d/hh students" or that "they had heard good things about the series." Instead, approximately 90 percent of programs indicated they selected the series because "it had been developed for d/hh students."

In the present study, as in the 1987 study, programs were asked to rate specific aspects of Reading Milestones as either a *strength* or a *weakness*. In

1987, clear strengths of Reading Milestones (defined as being cited by at least 65 percent of programs as a strength) were: difficulty of vocabulary, sufficient repetition of vocabulary, complexity of syntax, figurative language, interest level, phonics emphasis, conceptual load, and supplementary materials. In the present study, the only clear strengths were: interest level (for ages 5-8 years), conceptual load (all levels), and supplementary materials (all ages except 9-12). In 1987, of the 44 categories evaluated (i.e., 11 categories for each of four age levels), 36 categories were evaluated as strengths and only 4 areas were evaluated as *weaknesses*. In contrast, in the present study, only 14 categories were evaluated as strengths and *25* were evaluated as weaknesses. This finding is surprising, given: (1) the extensive usage of Reading Milestones and (2) the finding that the vast majority of the programs indicated they were *satisfied* (as opposed to dissatisfied) with the series.

Prior to this study, little was known about the extent to which a Whole Language orientation characterizes reading programs for d/hh students. Our findings reveal that more than 80 percent of the programs participating in our survey characterize their programs as incorporating a Whole Language framework for reading instruction for d/hh students. Whole Language was cited as the overall/umbrella framework for instruction by more than 40 percent of the programs serving 5-13 year old d/hh students and for 33 percent of high-school aged d/hh students.

In an attempt to determine what instructional programs serving d/hh students mean by *Whole Language*, or how programs operationally define programs within a Whole Language framework, programs were asked to select from a list of 18 instructional strategies, those that were incorporated within a Whole Language framework. Strategies included in the list were those most often cited in telephone interviews with programs describing themselves as incorporating a whole language framework. One response option for that question was to write in additional strategies. Fewer than 0.5 percent of the programs did so. Strategies cited most often as being incorporated within a Whole Language framework included: (1) LEA (2) guided reading, (3) sustained silent reading, (4) read alouds, (5) shared reading, (6) process writing, (7) semantic mapping, and (8) dialogue journals.

Data in this survey suggest that instructional programs serving d/hh students do not view Whole Language frameworks and basal reader approaches to be mutually exclusive or incompatible frameworks for reading instruction. Although 40 percent of programs identify Whole Language as the umbrella framework for reading instruction, 33 percent of the programs indicate that basals are the primary method of instruction for 5-12 year old d/hh students. Further, use of skill books, more typical of basal programs than programs within a Whole Language framework, are reported as being used by more than 75 percent of primary aged d/hh students, more than 80 percent programs serving 9-12 year old students, and more than 65 percent of d/hh students who are 15 years and older. Further, of those who could not characterize their overall umbrella framework for instruction as being solely basal reader, LEA, or Whole Language (thereby selecting "eclectic" and writing in 2-3 frameworks), the most frequently observed pairing was that of basal readers and Whole Language. This is a particularly interesting finding given the view of some that places basal readers and Whole Language on opposite ends of a continuum for purposes of reading instruction and those who view them as being incompatible for purposes of reading instruction.

Prior to this survey, little was known about the extent to which portfolios are used to evaluate reading achievement of d/hh students. Findings from this survey indicate that portfolios are considered by 26 percent of the programs in the study to be the most useful indicator of reading achievement for d/hh students - slightly more than those (25%) who consider standardized tests to be the best indicator.

Conclusion. Data from this survey yield some important insights about current instructional practices used to develop d/hh students' reading abilities in the United States. However, as in earlier studies, some important questions have emerged about the quality of instruction d/hh students are receiving. Specifically, questions are raised about the extensive usage of Reading Milestones for d/hh students, given that fewer than half of the programs cite "having had good experience with the program" or "hearing good things about the program," but, instead, cite that "it was developed for d/hh readers."

Some insights about the nature and extent of usage of Whole Language frameworks for instruction with d/hh students have been obtained from this study; however, many questions for future inquiry have been raised. These include: (1) whether or not instructional programs serving d/hh students consider Whole Language frameworks and basal reader usage compatible, (2) if so, specifically how basal readers are used within a Whole Language framework, (3) whether instructional programs serving d/hh students consider top-down, bottom-up, or interactive views about the reading process to be most valid for d/hh students, and (4) the extent to which skill development is emphasized in programs characterized as employing a Whole Language orientation.

Another area for future inquiry relates to portfolio assessment. Among the questions needing to be addressed include: (1) what do programs that use portfolios with d/hh students *include* in the portfolios?, (2) what is the role of *tests* in portfolios?, and (3) how are reading grades determined from portfolios? Hopefully, answers to these questions will be addressed in future studies of instructional practices used to develop reading abilities of deaf and hard-of-hearing students.

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Test-Taking Skills: A Missing Component of the Curriculum for Deaf Students

by

Carol J. LaSasso
Department of Education
Gallaudet University
800 Florida Avenue
Washington DC 20002
Tel.: 202-651-5530
FAX: 202-651-5860
E-mail: IN%"CJLASASSO@gallua.edu"

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Teachers throughout the United States make decisions daily about their students' instructional needs in reading based on the students' test performance. The assumption of teachers is that what the child produces during or after reading (the product) can shed some light on the cognitive activity (the reading process) that occurs while reading. One needs to be careful making such assumptions, as there is not a one-to-one product/process relationship. A reader can "comprehend" what is read yet fail to demonstrate that comprehension for a variety of reasons, including not understanding the question or not preparing properly for the type of test that was given. A reader can also get a correct answer on a test without comprehending by good guessing or using general world knowledge to answer the question.

A review of the literature in test-taking as it relates to deaf and hard-of-hearing (d/hh) students reveals that teachers working with d/hh children need to be even more careful than teachers working with hearing children about assuming that a child's test performance reflects the reading process. Such a review reveals that compared to hearing peers, *task* variables impact more greatly on d/hh students' performance on tests (Davey, LaSasso, & Macready, 1982; LaSasso, 1979; LaSasso, 1986; LaSasso & Davey, 1983; King & Quigley, 1985; Trybus & Buchanen, 1973; McKee and Bondi-Wolcott, 1982; DiFrancesca & Carey, 1972; Wolk & Schildroth, 1984). Further, the review indicates that d/hh students use specific test-taking strategies which hearing students either do not use or use infrequently (LaSasso, 1985, 1986; Saviddes & LaSasso, 1988;

Wolk & Schildroth, 1984; Webster, Wood, & Griffiths, 1981) much more extensively in test-taking situations than hearing peers. An example of a test-taking strategy that d/hh students use is visual matching which is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Example of Visual Matching

Partial Text

The electric eel is a fish which is native to south America.
It defends itself from attacks of enemies by a natural electric
battery. A discharge from this battery is powerful. It can stun
even the largest animals. In South America, roads often pass...

Question

How is the eel used by the Indians?

Response

attacks of enemies.

The student's response consists of words taken verbatim from the text which are within two lines above or below a word in the text that matches a word in the question. LaSasso (1985) found that 3/4 of d/hh students used this strategy at least 1/4 of the time, half of the students used it 1/3 of the time and 1/6 of the students used it at least 2/3 of the time of the time on an open-ended question task, compared to hearing students who used this strategy infrequently.

Although standardized reading tests have been criticized as not being clear indicators of process (Searfoss & Readence, 1994) and reliance on tests as indicators of reading achievement has decreased with the increasing popularity of portfolio assessment (Tierney, Carter & Desai, 1991; Valencia, 1990), important educational and vocational decisions continue to be made about d/hh students on the basis of their daily, informal, and standardized test performance. Accordingly, teachers have a responsibility to: (1) expose d/hh students to the full spectrum of testing procedures different teachers use to determine that learning, including text-based learning, has taken place and (2) provide extensive practice in taking different types of tests.

Teachers, administrators and others working with d/hh children in instructional situations need to be familiar with the literature related to characteristics of d/hh test-takers. Further, they need to understand the relationship between: (1) what a d/hh student truly comprehends while reading and (2) the d/hh student's performance on a reading comprehension task. In addition, those working with d/hh children need to understand that many aspects of test-taking can be *taught* to students and *developed* with sufficient practice and feedback.

Curricula for d/hh children need specific, formal test-taking components that ensure daily testing in most, if not all, subjects, with the full spectrum of test formats and testing conditions. Teachers at all grade levels and in all subjects need to be held accountable for not only developing their students' content knowledge and abilities but also their abilities to demonstrate their comprehension of that content.

The curriculum for d/hh students should include specific test-taking strategies for developing test-taking abilities (e.g., Rafael's (1986) Question-Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy), self-monitoring strategies (e.g.,Vaughan and Estes, (1986) SMART strategy, Reciprocal Questioning, also known as ReQuest (Manzo and Manzo, 1990) and Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar, 1984). In QAR, students are taught to analyze how they could or should have gotten an answer to a particular question: (1) "right there," meaning it is explicitly stated in the text, (2) "think and search," meaning the answer is not in the text but must be inferred or constructed from different parts of the text, (3) "author and you," the answer is not in the story; it must be constructed by prior knowledge and text information, and (4) "on my own," meaning the answer is almost exclusively from the student's experience and prior knowledge; the text was merely a convenient means of stimulating consideration of it. The SMART method (Vaughan & Estes, 1986) involves having students keep track of their comprehension by using only two marginal notations (+ = I understand or I have no questions; ? = I'm confused or I have a question). The Reciprocal Questioning and Reciprocal Teaching methods involve teacher modeling to help students understand how to ask questions, set a reading purpose, and integrate reading information.

The test-taking component of a curriculum for d/hh students should not only include specific strategies for developing d/hh students' test-taking needs but should be specific about how often d/hh children should be tested. In the final analysis, a large part of anyone's test-taking abilities relates to one's experience with a particular type of test. In other words, the more tests one takes, the better test-taker one becomes.

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Parents as Partners for Preparing Deaf Students for Bi-Bi Educational Programs

by

Carol J. LaSasso
Department of Education
Gallaudet University
800 Florida Avenue
Washington DC 20002
Tel: 202-651-5530
FAX: 202-6515860
E-mail: CJLASASSO@gallua.edu

Melanie A. Metzger
Department of ASL, Linguistics, and Interpretation
Gallaudet University
800 Florida Avenue
Washington DC 20002
Tel.: 202-651-5450
FAX: 202-651-5741
E-mail: MAMETZGER@gallua.edu

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In order to realize their full potential in society, deaf and hard-of-hearing (d/hh) students in the U.S. need competence in at least two languages (i.e., ASL and English) - plus a third if the home language is neither ASL nor English). Increasingly, Bilingual-Bicultural (BiBi) instructional programs are being proposed as the best way to address the linguistic abilities of d/hh students. The most prevalent BiBi model involves promoting American Sign Language (ASL) as the d/hh child's first language, using ASL as the language of instruction, and developing English via reading and writing (Lane, Hoffmeister, & Bahan, 1996; Johnson, Liddell, & Erting, 1989; Paul & Quigley, 1990; Vernon & Andrews, 1990; Mahshie, 1995). In this paper, we propose a model for BiBi instruction which uses parents as partners with instructors to develop d/hh students' linguistic abilities.

In our BiBi model, *the language of the home* is promoted as the d/hh child's first language - which means ASL for d/hh children of deaf parents who use ASL and English or other traditionally-spoken languages for d/hh children of new-to-signing hearing parents. In our model, traditionally-spoken languages are conveyed via Cued Speech instead of manually-coded English (MCE) systems on the basis of three distinct advantages of Cued Speech over MCE systems. These advantages relate to: (1) task differences in learning to cue or sign English, (2) how completely signs and cues convey English (Metzger & Fleetwood, 1994) and (3) the energy needed by fluent signers or cuers to convey English to d/hh children.

One advantage of Cued Speech over MCE systems relates to the memory load involved in learning to sign or cue. It is estimated that the receptive vocabulary of 6-year old hearing children is 25,000 words (Shibles, 1959). To the extent that the receptive vocabulary d/hh children is that conveyed by parents and others in close proximity, parents would need to learn an average of 18-20 signs each day during the preschool years to expose the d/hh child to the same vocabulary exposed to hearing children. Further, assuming that the number of repetitions needed to instantly distinguish a single sign from all others is the same needed to distinguish a single print from of a word from all others and become a "sight word," the d/hh child would need 30-35 repetitions of the sign. Learning MCE vocabulary is obviously not a task that is mastered quickly nor with little effort for most parents; however, the importance of conveying the home language to d/hh infants immediately after birth is the same as it is for hearing infants.

The memory load involved in learning Cued Speech is significantly less than that of learning MCE systems. Learning Cued Speech involves learning 8 handshapes and 4 placements to correspond to the 44-or-so American English phonemes. Estimates of the time needed to learn the system range from 12 hours to a few weeks (Cornett & Daisey, 1992). Once Cued Speech is learned, any English word can be visually conveyed to d/hh individuals as completely as it is auditorially conveyed to hearing individuals.

A second advantage of Cued Speech over MCE systems is that Cued Speech conveys more information about English than MCE systems do - primarily, because cueing conveys *phonological information*, including prosodic information, about English which MCE systems do not (Fleetwood & Metzger, 1991, in press; Metzger, 1994). In other words, MCE signs convey nothing about the vowels and consonants in English. The ASL phonemes used to produce "bird," involving tapping the index finger and thumb together, have no relationship to b-I-r-d in English. Unless the d/hh child has the English word for bird in his head and someone makes the relationship between the sign and English word explicit, there is simply no way to make the connection with the signs. Another limitation of MCE systems relates to conveying information needed to generalize morphological rules about English. The number of ASL morphemes does not match the number of English morphemes. Cued Speech conveys the same morphemes via cues to d/hh individuals as speech conveys to hearing individuals (Metzger & Fleetwood, 1992). Further, cues convey the same phonological information about the vowels and consonants in English as speech does. This information is particularly helpful when mapping knowledge of "spoken" English to printed English - which may explain why cueing d/hh children tend to be such good readers (Wandel, 1989; Leybaert, 1993).

A third advantage of Cued Speech over MCE systems relates to the relative *complexity* of each task, in which complexity is defined in terms of the number of decisions the signer or cuer needs to make while signing or cueing.

Hearing parents who are signing English need to make translation decisions which cuers of English do not. For example, in signing the word "right," the signer needs to determine which of several signs is contextually appropriate. Cuers would cue the word the same regardless of the context in the same way that speakers would pronounce it. Further, when MCE signers cannot think of a sign for a particular English word, they need to search their sign lexicon and decide: (1) which sign in their lexicon is closest in meaning and (2) whether the receiver would prefer to have the word fingerspelled for specificity. Cuers do not need to make these decisions. The primary decision a cuer needs to make is which of 8 handshapes and 4 placements is the cue equivalent of the particular phoneme being cued. Faced with fewer decisions about what and how to convey English, cuers theoretically have more residual energy than MCE users to interact more with the d/hh child. In general, the greater the linguistic interaction between the native user of a language and a child, the greater the linguistic competence the child has with that language.

Parents, because of their proximity to the d/hh child during the optimum language learning period (0-6 years), are in the best position to serve as linguistic role models and interact naturally with the d/hh child in a way that the child develops a first language; thus, BiBi programs should utilize the strengths of parents to develop a native home language, which, for new-to-signing, hearing parents is a traditionally-spoken language. Children who come to school with a native language are in a better position to learn second and third languages. Further, children with English as a native language, are in a better position to develop reading abilities than children without linguistic competence in English (LaSasso, 1994, 1996).

According to the Chair of the Deaf Leadership Council of the National Cued Speech Association, increasingly, d/hh adults, who have grown up cueing, are becoming active members in the Deaf Community and are strong advocates for both signing ASL and cueing English (Daniel Koo, personal communication). As we approach the 21st century, we can expect more and more hearing parents to use Cued Speech with d/hh children, resulting in larger numbers of d/hh children with native competence in English or other traditionally spoken languages entering BiBi programs. These children will be ready to develop ASL, reading, and third language abilities, so that they will realize their full potential in society.

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Visual Activities Using the Internet: Enhancing Experiential Learning, Concept Development, and Literacy

by

Pamela Luft
Kent State University
405 White Hall
Kent, OH 44242-0001
Tel.: 330-672-2294 (V)
Tel.: 330-672-2396 (T)
FAX: 330-672-2512
E-mail: pluft@emerald.educ.kent.edu

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The Internet has many capabilities that make it especially useful with Deaf and hard-of-hearing students, who benefit from a highly visual presentation of information. The Internet provides teachers with access to a wide variety of visually-based resources for use in the classroom including pictures, graphics, and video. These can be used to supplement existing textual information or to represent it in another conceptual (and visual) format. The combined textual with visual presentation of information enhances conceptual understanding and can lead to increased academic achievement

Both the teacher and students can use computer capabilities to identify graphic information. In addition, textual information may be represented in another conceptual and visual format such as conceptual maps or semantic webs. Imagery strategies which identify relationships between ideas and chunking of information have been found to be effective in assisting students to process new learning (Dwyer, 1994). Many computer application and word processing packages include spread sheet and graphic capabilities that can be used to portray information in a visual form.

The combined textual with visual presentation information can assist students in increasing their conceptual understanding by this more thorough representation and refinement of the concept. Some researchers believe that a visual vocabulary precedes a verbal one, such that strengthening the visual vocabulary will assist verbal learning and response capabilities (Hortin, 1994). Such an enhanced learning environment ultimately can lead to increased academic achievement (Dwyer, 1994). However, any lessons, regardless of new or unusual formats used, need to be effectively designed and implemented (Hannafin & Peck, 1988).

Despite the inherent novelty and therefore, initial motivation in using computers and the Internet, conceptualizing lessons and planning research activities for students needs to be based upon principles of instructional design. Based upon recommendations from Hannafin and Peck (1988) effective computer-assisted lessons should:

1. be based on the teacher's instructional objectives;
2. match learner characteristics (knowledge and skill levels) with abilities on various input devices, type of screens, and outputs;
3. maximize interaction by asking for meaningful and thoughtful responses;
4. be individualized and adapted to teach topics of interest as well as remedial instruction;
5. maintain learner interest through intrinsic merit of the lesson;
6. approach the learner positively, taking advantage of the nonthreatening, patient, and "forgiving" nature of the computer which does not penalize for errors or time taken;
7. provide a variety of feedback: positive when doing well particularly for younger students, and corrective feedback for older learners and those who desire more efficiency and information about their performance;
8. fit the instructional environment to require minimal teacher involvement, such that lessons can be started and completed without assistance and will record student performance to be reviewed later when the teacher has sufficient time;
9. evaluate performance appropriately based on meaningful, measurable objectives with accurate assessment of their accomplishment to include the following:
    a. asking the right questions, not just those in the most convenient format;
    b. avoiding ambiguous or poorly worded questions by using the same vocabulary as found in the lesson and that support a correct interpretation by students;

        c. judging answers thoroughly and to include unanticipated responses;
        d. are not confusing an inability to respond with ignorance of the correct answer or procedure;

10. use the computer's resources wisely with a recognition of the screen's poor resolution in comparison to printed materials, but uses to advantage its capabilities for static and animated graphics, colors, flashing, and sound to amplify ideas and concepts;
11. be based on principles of instructional design to:
    a. motivate the learner;
    b. inform the learner of the objectives of the lesson;
    c. review prerequisite skills required for lesson success;
    d. present well-organized instruction;
    e. evaluate progress frequently,
    f. provide adequate feedback;
    g. allow for adequate practice; and
    h. evaluate the final performance of both the student and the lesson itself (Gagne & Briggs, 1979);
12. be evaluated thoroughly and over time, when possible, for instructional quality, affective considerations, cosmetic appeal, curricular relevance, accuracy of the program; and monitors the achievement of the objectives and learners' attitudes toward the lesson.

Internet research lessons and projects are well suited to these principles. A thoughtful and relevant project provides students with a framework for using and expanding their conceptual understanding to learn with more depth. In addition, they are allowed to select Web sites and resources that portray information in a manner that is most effective for them as individuals. Choice helps to maintain motivation as well as truly individualizing the learning and response format. Group projects allows students also to receive feedback from peers in addition to that provided by the teacher and allows the teacher more time to monitor those that may require some additional assistance.

The quality most often credited as contributing to the effectiveness of computer-based learning is interaction (Hannafin & Peck, 1988). The active exchange of information between student and computer is key, and the ability to individualize is largely responsible for learning efficiency. Use of the Internet for resource searches as well as interactive and multimedia programs provides a forum for high levels of student engagement.

Any project must be carefully designed. With limited access to a computer lab or limited numbers of computers available within the classroom, the logistics of such an activity must be thoughtfully planned. Hannafin and Peck (1988) suggest the following steps in creating a lesson:

1. a needs assessment phase to clearly define and specify the project taking into account the students' needs as well as classroom and scheduling constraints;
2. a design phase to determine the sequence of activities and to select the best, or several potential, solutions as necessary for each instructional objective; and
3. a development and implementation phase which transfers the ideas to a useful format including testing and debugging, formative and summative evaluations, and revision.

Designing a lesson or project using visual materials requires identifying strategies to effectively incorporate visual formats that also address the development and expansion of student concepts and literacy skills. Not all use of visuals assists with student learning (Dwyer, 1994). Research has found that learners possessing higher intelligence do better with complex visual displays. Yet, by varying the degree of realistic detail within a visual image, a teacher can reduce differences in performance of learners bring different levels of prior knowledge to the learning situation (Dwyer 1987 as cited in Dwyer, 1994). The teacher can suggest certain visuals for certain students, however the variety of resources on the Internet allows individual students to access visuals from which they can choose those which are most meaningful and helpful to them.

Examples of using the Internet effectively include enhanced conceptual development by using (1) topical searches to expand students' knowledge base, (2) to create or expand information presented as graphic organizers (e.g., semantic webs and conceptual maps), and (3) access to video encyclopedias or resources that provide footage of real-world events and their impact on our lives. Topical searches using one of the many search engines can lead students to learn and understand with increasing depth. There are a number of search engines available, some of which may come with your Internet access program.

Information from many Web sites and resources can be imported into word processing and other application programs directly, thus facilitating the creation of visual displays within textual material. Access to online and video encyclopedias provide a source of maps, visuals, photographs, in addition to textual material. Graphic representations can be created by using spreadsheet programs (such as Lotus 123, Excel, in addition to those associated with many word processing programs) that make pie charts, line graphs, bar graphs, and other visual images. Online news services also provide video segments, photographs, and visual images useful in presenting textual information. A number of these resources are subscription-based but can be a very useful resources for classrooms (Internet World, 1996, October; Technological Horizons in Education Journal, April 1995, April; 1996, August):

English literacy skills are supported by (1) text that includes pictorial, graphic, or video footage, (2) student presentations or explanations using both textual and visual information, (3) written communication in participating in bulletin boards, e-mail, and collaborative projects with other classes or Internet users, and (4) communication skills in accessing and researching real-time or information services such as the weather and news. Language arts skills are supported by several specific Web sites and interactive CED-ROM programs, as well as social studies, science, and math-based resources. The Internet also allows access to topical chat lines and bulletin boards for establishing specific communication and interaction opportunities for students and the teacher. Some news and information services provide on-line "experts" that students can access. Students who have difficulty in communicating through writing will have functional and "live" opportunities during which it is important that they write clearly. Successful experiences will build their confidence and help them learn strategies that can support them through their difficulties, such as asking peers for assistance or reading messages "orally" to themselves prior to sending them.

Lessons which incorporate a variety of visual information using the Internet can provide current and motivating content for students who otherwise have difficulty learning from text-based information. Classroom presentations and discussions are likely to improve as a result of students having had initial learning experiences accessing materials that are best suited to their learning styles and based upon their personal preferences. Students will be better prepared to participate in sharing and explaining what they have learned resulting in further development both of their own and others' understanding. Simultaneously, they will be increasing their linguistic and communication skills, both in interpreting information for understanding and in expressing it to others.

Both the teacher and students can use the Internet to meet individual and unique requirements in creating projects, lessons, and activities. Learning is flexible and students assist in making resource choices which will best support their own individual learning and conceptual needs. Incorporating the principles of learning and following systematic procedures for lesson design will result in enhanced academic growth through learning opportunities most suitable for each individual student.

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Using Electronic Dialogue Journals to Model Whole Language Procedures

by

Pamela Luft
Kent State University
405 White Hall
Kent, OH 44242-0001
Tel.: 330-672-2294 (V)
Tel.: 330-672-2396 (T)
FAX: 330-672-2512
E-mail: pluft@emerald.educ.kent.edu

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Students at Kent State University are fortunate to be exposed to current reading research through faculty at College of Education's Reading Center which also edits The Reading Journal. Students in the course, "Teaching Reading to the Hearing Impaired," learn to adapt holistic reading methodology for use with Deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Most of the 14 students in this course during Spring 1996 reported that they had been taught reading using a strict basal and phonics-based methodology. In several cases it had been a very punitive and unhappy training. I felt it was important for these students to experience the empowerment and shift in balance of power when using a student-centered approach. This would allow them to better evaluate their impact on future classrooms in making methodology decisions. The course was designed to promote discussion and interaction using a whole-language and student-centered philosophy. In addition, assignments were open to negotiation with the result that several were significantly modified and the final exam was given as a take-home.

One of the course requirements was an electronic dialogue journal with the instructor. Students would have the experience of journaling with the instructor as a means of learning appropriate responses for Deaf and hard-of-hearing students with whom they were journaling, and also as a means to more fully allow them to experience empowerment and a conversation in which they were responded to as an equal. Thus, they were both "living" a student-centered interaction and being provided with response models that would support this approach with their own students. Both experiences in journaling were concurrent so that their learnings could be directly applied to their own students. A pre/posttest survey was conducted to solicit their reaction to this journaling experience and the electronic format. Their journal responses also were analyzed for growth and change.

Students had received prior training in using e-mail and all had e-mail accounts. The instructor provided students with articles about using dialogue journals with Deaf and hard-of-hearing students (Gambrell, 1985; Staton, Peyton, & Gutstein, 1985). These provided the rationale for this approach as well as examples of responses and strategies for teachers to use in generating their responses. These strategies included (a) responding to the content of the student entry, (b) modeling correct language that was used incorrectly by students, (c) generating responses that continued the same theme or topic as the student (not changing topic and "taking control" away from the student), and (d) asking enough questions to stimulate a response but not overwhelming the student or "taking control" of the conversation.

Students were given the same instructions they were to use with their own students in the practicum settings: (a) that no one else would see the journals (except for instructional purposes) unless prior permission was granted, and (b) that students were free to write about any topic they wished. Students were assigned to initiate the dialogue as a means of establishing their role as communication equals from the beginning.

Several requirements were made of the students: they were required to make at least 10 journal entries, one for each week of the ten weeks during which the dialogue was scheduled, at least three sentences for each entry. This was to ensure a regular conversation that was able to develop over time, based on advice from another instructor who had one student make eight entries during Finals Week without waiting for any instructor response between. The faculty member felt that neither a relationship nor a true conversation were allowed to develop (Tiene & Luft, 1996). All correspondence for this electronic journal was saved in mail files established for each student. Hard copies of all journal entries were made for analysis purposes.

Students were free to discuss issues related to their journaling experience with their students in either the class meetings or in the electronic journal with the instructor. Most students chose to use the class meetings although nearly all made at least one comment about their practicum journals during the electronic journal experience. Issues raised in class included sensitive issues such as how to appropriately respond to entries made about the death of a pet or in another case, of a parent, responding to questions that were "too personal," to strategy issues of how to encourage responses from students who had little, if any, written language or those who appeared to perseverate on a single topic for several weeks. Instructions were given to respect the students' responses and attempts to communicate at all times; a picture, a single topic, or a sensitive topic were all important communicative efforts by the students. Both students with questions about responding to death issues also addressed them in their electronic journal with the instructor. Each asked for specific advice in making their response. Both students felt satisfied with the ensuing reaction of their students.

An examination of the electronic journal interactions showed that the number of student contacts ranged between 9 and 18 for the 14, with a mean of 12. The survey instrument consisted of 18 questions and provided a quantitative analysis of the students' experience. Three of the 18 questions showed significant pre/posttest differences. These indicated that the electronic journal experience with the instructor:

(a) did not suffer from the lack of spontaneity associated with face-to-face communication,
(b) provided a preferable format because students could articulate their thoughts carefully, and
(c) was preferable to a hard-copy written dialogue journal experience.

Items that were not significantly different also had important implications showing that:

(a) the electronic journal assignment did not significantly alter students' usage of e-mail,
(b) the e-mail format was easy to use,
(c) students did not prefer face-to-face opportunities to dialogue, and
(d) the experience made them neither more nor less inclined to express themselves about controversial subjects.

Qualitative results included student comments to three of the 18 questions as well as an analysis of individual student entries. Positive student comments from the posttest included the following:

> Time to think about questions/comments. Convenient. Easier to complete task. Easier than finding time for an appointment. Get to know teacher. I liked to write when I wanted. Easier. Quicker. The technology is extremely important! I am always on e-mail and checking it. It is quicker to write on my own time than writing in class against a time constraint.

Negative comments from students included these:

> Inconvenient. Could not talk face to face. Not convenient. I like face to face interaction. Like to talk. Slow. Account overload. I would suggest for future use that all people should print a copy of their journal entries. I'm not hip on computer work. I like letters.

The negative comments about preferring face-to-face interactions were not statistically significant because they represented the views of only one of the students. The qualitative analyses of the individual entries showed that 10 of the 14 students indicated formation of a relationship with the instructor. This occurred by changes over the span of conversations indicating (a) a sharing of more personal reflections and thoughts, and (b) asking for personal and/or specific advice. Ten students also used the electronic journal to make specific comments about how the journal was progressing with their students. All students commented about their practicum experience and asked questions about class assignments.

In summary, the electronic journal appeared to be a more convenient and comfortable format for most of the students in the course. It provided them with an opportunity to ask questions about the course, their practicum, specific interaction strategies with students, and about planning their own future. Ten of the 14 students became more comfortable in sharing and asking personal information and questions, suggesting the formation of a relationship. Their willingness to both share and ask suggests their sense of empowerment and of trust, and a successful exposure to a "whole-language" and student-centered experience.

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Teacher Subject Matter Competencies in Mathematics: Where Do We Go From Here?

by

Claudia M. Pagliaro
University of Pittsburgh
Tel.: 412-624-7251 (V/T)
FAX: 412-648-7081
E-mail: PAGLIARO+@PITT.EDU

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In this age of technology, a comprehensive mathematical knowledge and the ability to apply that knowledge is critical to virtually every profession; yet, the mathematics education of deaf and hard of hearing students has been virtually ignored. Achievement scores are consistently low, lagging behind hearing counterparts by as much as two grade-levels (Allen, 1995).

Part of the reason for this poor performance may be insufficient training of deaf education teachers. Teacher preparation programs often focus disproportionately on issues and topics related to language and communication to the exclusion of most other subject areas (Innes, 1992; Kidd, Madsen, & Lamb, 1993; Blackburn & Pagliaro, 1994). Past studies conclude that while teachers in deaf education are adequately prepared to teach deaf children, they are ill-equipped for mathematics instruction (Goodstein, 1981; Kluwin & Moores, 1985).

Since the mid-1980s, mathematics education has experienced a reform movement. In response to societal changes and demands of industry, instruction has turned more toward application and problem-solving and away from the traditional computation exercises. Likewise, modification in the preparation of mathematics teachers has been advocated.

In response, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) has published three documents that lay the foundation for today's mathematics education. The second of these documents, the *Professional Standards for Teaching Mathematics* (NCTM, 1991), offers guidance to preservice and in-service teachers, as well as to administrators for the support and development of teacher competency in mathematics and mathematics instruction.

The National Action Plan for Mathematics Education Reform for the Deaf [NAPMERD] (Dietz, 1995) reiterates these convictions. The Plan recommends that preservice and in-service programs assume responsibility for increasing the mathematics skills and knowledge of deaf education professionals in content, pedagogy, and cognition. The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and ACE-DHH also support subject matter competencies for deaf education teachers ("Minutes of the Meetings...," 1996). Evidence of this campaign can be seen in the "Standards and Indicators" recently distributed by the Council on Education of the Deaf (1997).

In light of the developments outlined above, the study reported here was conducted to describe the current status within deaf education of teacher preparation and professional development in mathematics, as well as the nature of support teachers receive from schools (Pagliaro, 1996). The investigation surveyed teachers and administrators from schools for the deaf throughout the nation. Data were analyzed using descriptive and correlational summaries. Professionals representing 74 percent of the schools responded. Results indicated little change from prior studies.

The data confirm that teachers of deaf and hard of hearing students, especially at the high school level, may be inadequately prepared to teach mathematics. Overall, just 25 percent of teachers reported holding a higher education degree in a mathematics-related field. Within the 9-12 grade category, just 51 percent majored or minored in a mathematics-related field, as opposed to 81 percent of regular education mathematics instructors at this level (Weiss, Matti, & Smith, 1994). Results associated with coursework present a similar picture. Teachers at the 9-12 level reported having taken a mean number of 7.5 mathematics-related courses, almost six short of the amount recommended by the NCTM (1981).

Questions related to professional development reveal a moderate number of teachers who actively seek to expand their mathematics knowledge and instruction skills through in-service sessions, professional mathematics organizations, and mathematics publications. Sixty percent of K-12 teachers attended no school-sponsored mathematics in-service sessions within the previous year, while almost forty percent attended no "outside" sessions. Sixty-five percent belonged to no professional mathematics organizations, including almost half of the 9-12 teachers; and 64 percent indicated reading no more than one mathematics publication. Forty-six percent remained unfamiliar with the *Standards* documents, and just 7 percent reported reading the NAPMERD report.

Although aware of the need for qualified mathematics instructors, many schools offered little opportunity for professional growth. Sixty-nine percent reported having no school membership in professional mathematics organizations, and 43 percent offered no mathematics in-service sessions within the previous year. The majority of schools (75 percent) did offer support for professional development in the form of release time, partial reimbursement of expenses, and or travel/per diem. Administrators also noted a mean number of three mathematics-related publications available to teachers. Still, less than 40 percent of schools had available any one of the *Standards* documents and only 25 percent indicated that they had the NAPMERD report.

In summary, if we are to prepare students to meet the challenges of the next millennium, attention must be given to the mathematics preparation of teachers. The following recommendations are offered:

1. The field of deaf education should make mathematics education a priority (including raising the competencies of its teachers) to prepare its students to meet the demands of living in the 21st century.
2. Administrators should take a more proactive role in increasing the competency of mathematics teachers; including demanding qualified personnel from preparation programs, encouraging and rewarding professional development, and providing on-going support through workshops, publications, and school memberships in professional mathematics organizations.
3. Deaf education professionals involved in mathematics should make a greater effort to join professional mathematics organizations, attend conferences, and read related publications. Teachers should take advantage of school offerings to support these efforts.

4. Professional organizations should focus attention on special populations and increase accessibility to membership and publications.

The author hopes that this investigation brings renewed attention to mathematics instruction within deaf education, and works to expand opportunities for deaf and hard of hearing students.

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Parental Involvement: Deaf versus hearing children

by

Gerald W. Powers
Professor of Communication Disorders
Bloomsburg University
Bloomsburg, PA 17815
Tel.: 717-389-4119
FAX: 717-389-3980
E-mail: Powers@bloomu.edu

Jennifer Saskiewicz
Bucks County IU 22
Tel: 1-800-770-4822

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This study was conducted to determine if there was a difference in hearing parents' involvement in their deaf child's vs. their hearing child's education. Parents were asked to complete a twenty-three question survey about their involvement in their child's education over the past year. Neither group demonstrated a statistically significant difference in their involvement in their child's education. It was found that the parents of deaf children observed their children somewhat more in the classroom than the parents of hearing children. It was also found that the parents of the hearing children volunteered in their children's classroom somewhat more than the parents of deaf children.

Research Review

Research indicates that parental involvement plays a significant role in the education of children. There is little doubt that parents have a profound effect on the academic behavior of children (O'Connor, 1977). Parental involvement in their children's education can make critical contributions to student achievement (Henderson & Berla, 1994). Efforts to improve children's education are much more effective when the parents are actively involved. Therefore, it is essential that parents of both hearing and deaf children become involved in their children's education.

Over the past few years there has been a decrease in the amount of parental involvement. A study conducted by Amato (1994) addressed the decline of parental participation in school functions and activities at a middle school. There was also a low level of parental involvement and/or interest. A one-year program was designed to motivate and involve parents in their children's education. As a result, PTO membership and attendance significantly increased (Amato, 1994).

One way to encourage parental involvement is to hold parent workshops. This is true for parents of both deaf and hearing children. Marotto (1995) supported the idea of inviting parents to attend socials, training sessions for working with their children, volunteering to help with class activities, and engaging in parent-child sessions. Non-threatening activities, such as the above, are ways that parents can become actively involved in their child's education. Parents can use information from the workshops to create activities for the home. Home activities provide a relaxed setting for parents and children and increase parent-child interactions. Parental involvement reinforces the importance of school to children.

Parents of children who are deaf have an additional responsibility in the process of parental involvement. There is the legal requirement for parents to be actively involved in the planning of each child's education. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), which was known formerly as Public Law 94-142, is a federal law which mandates that parents play an active role in the process used to make any educational decisions about their child.

Method

Subjects were 41 hearing parents from Bucks County, PA. The parents who participated in this study did not have a hearing loss. Parents had children who were either deaf or hearing. The children ranged in age from 5 years old to 12 years old. Parents were randomly selected from two populations. The parents of deaf children were from an Intermediate Unit in Bucks County, PA. A total of 13 parents participated in the deaf population. The parents of the hearing children were from an elementary school in Bucks County, PA. A total of 28 parents participated in the hearing population.

This study used a twenty-three question survey which consisted of eight demographic questions and fifteen research related questions. The survey was adapted from two surveys that were designed by Iglitzin & Wandschneider (1994) and Morrison (1994). A sample question for the research was: Do you communicate with your child about things that happen at school?

Procedure

All parents received a survey from their children. The surveys were distributed in school and sent home with both the deaf and hearing children. The parents were asked in writing to participate in the research study. They were informed that all information would be strictly confidential and that they could withdraw at any time. A survey was attached to the letter. Parents were instructed to return the completed survey in an enclosed self-addressed envelope. The surveys were color coded. Blue surveys were sent to the parents of deaf children. Yellow surveys were sent to the parents of hearing children. The parents completed the survey by responding to the eight demographic questions and checking "yes" or "no" for the research related questions. The surveys were completed by thirteen parents of deaf children and twenty-eight parents of hearing children.

Results

Was there a difference in hearing parents' involvement in their deaf child's education vs. hearing parents' involvement in their hearing child's educations? Results showed that both groups were actively involved in their child's education. An independent t-test was used to determine the significance of the research results. The t-test indicated a negligible statistical difference between parental involvement in their deaf child's education vs. parental involvement in their hearing child's education. The parents of deaf children had a t-value of 0.1105. The standard deviation for the parents of the deaf children was 0.37747456. The parents of hearing children had a t-value of 0.1095. The standard deviation for the parents of the hearing children was 0.38837216.

An item-by-item statistical analysis of the data was performed. The results indicated a difference between the two groups in the area of classroom observation and classroom volunteerism. The parents of the deaf children observed their children somewhat more in the classroom than the parents of the hearing children. The parents of the hearing children volunteered in the classroom somewhat more than the parents of the deaf children.

Discussion

The principal finding of this study was that there was no significant difference between the involvement of hearing parents in their deaf child's education and parents' involvement in their hearing child's education. This study, unlike others, most indicated parents were actively involved in their child's education. One possible explanation for these results was that parents have realized the importance of participation in educational centered activities.

Another finding of the study was the difference in classroom observation between the two groups. Parents of deaf children observed in the classroom more than parents of hearing children. A possible explanation for this maybe that parents of deaf children felt a sense of helplessness, or a need for data for decision-making in the IEP process.

A third finding of the study was the difference in classroom volunteerism between the two groups. Parents of hearing children volunteered in the classroom more than parents of deaf children. A possible explanation for this may be that parents of hearing children felt more at ease in participating and interacting with their hearing child's educational program. Some suggestions for increasing parental involvement include:

1. Support groups
2. Buddy system
3. Parent Inservice
4. Newsletters
5. Sign classes
6. Parental tutoring
7. "Home" books
8. "Home" curriculum
9. Social activities
10. Re-unions

Teachers have expressed a major concern about the decrease in parental involvement (Roebusk-Shepski, 1995), but a new trend may be emerging. The education of all children is a shared responsibility between parents, teachers and children. Effective communication is an imperative factor in this process.

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Speech-Language Pathologists or Teachers of the Deaf/Hard of Hearing: Who is More Qualified to Serve?

by

Gerald W. Powers
Christopher L. Schwilk

Department of Communication Disorders & Special Education
Bloomsburg University
Bloomsburg, PA 17815
Tel.: 717-389-4119
FAX: 717)-389-3980
E-mail: powers @ bloomu.edu

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A professional serving persons with hearing loss in all its facets must be a person who has requisite training in several areas. Competencies have been established by two organizations which certify professionals to work with language and hearing disorders. These are the Council on Education of the Deaf (CED) and the American Speech-Language and Hearing Association (ASHA). Both agencies also accredit programs that train professionals to work with persons with hearing impairments and certify professionals graduating from those programs. CED strives to make certain that all teachers and health care providers who are trained to work with deaf and hard of hearing persons are competent in all areas of communication, language development, academic achievement and psychosocial functioning. ASHA certifies audiologists and speech-language Pathologists to serve a wide variety of hearing, speech, and language disorders. Many states, including New York State, certify both professionals as teachers. Teacher of Deaf /Hard of Hearing Students vs. Teacher of Speech and Hearing Impaired Students.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

This research proposed to determine whether teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing or speech-language instructors are more qualified to serve persons who are deaf and hard of hearing.

Teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing are concerned primarily with communication and language. Teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing specialize in methods of communication and instruction for deaf and hard of hearing persons. These services focus on any aspect of life that is affected by the persons hearing loss. Language, academics, psycho-social, vocational, and communication considerations are the primary targets (CED, 1974). A teacher of the deaf and hard of hearing differs from a speech-language pathologist in that a teacher of the deaf and hard of hearing is trained to deal with one exceptionality. A speech-language pathologists may deal with more than ten different speech and language disorders. The teacher's focus is on preparation for functioning in life. The speech-language pathologists focus is on communication. The basic issue to be addressed is a result of schools choosing to hire a speech-language pathologist to fulfill an IEP requirement for a teacher of a deaf or hard of hearing student.

A teacher of the deaf and hard of hearing must first be certified in a primary or secondary education area, (CED, 1974). This exposure increases the teacher's ability to deal with the variety of teaching situations and additional exceptionalities that present themselves in a therapy setting.

ASHA maintains that effective management of hearing impairment must address medical, and communicative considerations (ASHA, 1993). The question proposed by this study was "What profession is best trained and suited for delivering such effective management?" The null hypothesis stated that there would be no difference in competencies in the field of hearing loss between speech-language pathologists and teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing.

METHOD

Thirty-four teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing and twenty-seven speech-language pathologists participated in this study. All subjects were licensed by the Pennsylvania Board of Examiners in Speech and Hearing. The subjects were selected using a table of random numbers from the total pool of licensed teachers and speech-language pathologists. There was no attempt to control for sex, age, or years of service of the subjects.

SURVEY PROCEDURE

Surveys were sent to one-hundred teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing and one-hundred speech-language pathologists. The instrument used in this survey was designed by the researchers for exclusive use in this study. The survey consisted of three parts: 1) demographic information, 2) questions about graduate preparation, and 3) a test of knowledge and competency in the field of deaf and hard of hearing habilitation/rehabilitation. Demographic information was also requested of the subjects. Demographic questions asked for descriptive information regarding certification and licensure, number of deaf or hard of hearing persons served, and primary work environment. Ten questions asked the subjects to rate their graduate preparation for working with deaf and hard of hearing persons.

The second part of the survey consisted of ten knowledge and skill-based competency questions. The questions were extracted from two documents: 1) a position paper from the American Speech-Language and Hearing Association entitled "Definition of and Competencies for Aural Rehabilitation," (ASHA, 1984) and 2) The CEC-CED Joint Knowledge and Skills Document (ASHA, 1984).

RESULTS

Demographic Analysis

One question in the demographic information provided a dramatic comparison. In answer to the question"Judging from your experience, do you feel that speech-language pathologists or teachers of the deaf/hard of hearing are better equipped by training programs to serve the needs of clients with hearing loss?" Speech-language pathologists stated twenty-six to one that teachers of the hearing impaired were better prepared. Thirty-three teachers of the deaf stated that teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing were better prepared. One teacher stated that speech-language pathologists were better prepared. This self-report of perceived superior preparation was statistically significant.

Statistical Analysis of Graduate Preparation

A Chi-Square Analysis of the graduate school preparation indicated that the most informative data was the high percentage of teachers of the deaf and speech-language pathologists who responded that they had been prepared in teaching speech to persons with hearing loss. There was less than a two percent difference in this area. The greatest disparity occurred in teaching language and reading to persons with hearing loss. In this category 88 percent of the teachers indicated that they were well prepared, compared with only 41 percent of speech-language pathologists who answered that they were well prepared.

Statistical Analysis of Knowledge and Competency

The t-test analysis of the test of knowledge and competency indicated a mean difference of 1.862. The degree of freedom was sixty with a t-value of 4.751. Teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing averaged 77.14 percent on the test of knowledge and competency. Speech-language pathologists averaged 58.52 percent on the same set of questions. Variance among the teachers was 19.75 percent, while variance among the speech-language pathologists was 28.32. The difference in these test scores was also significant.

DISCUSSION

Parents of students who are deaf or hard of hearing seeking is services from speech-language pathologists should be aware of these data. Speech-language pathologists are trained as generalists to serve the wide variety of communication disorders. Such generalization in training may not equip speech-language pathologists to learn about or deal with language development of deaf persons or the variety of methods of communication with and instruction of the deaf and hard of hearing. From the test of knowledge, one can infer that teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing have more specific knowledge and training to work with persons with hearing loss.

In the state of Pennsylvania teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing with master's degrees receive a minimum of thirty-six hours in language development, teaching speech to persons who are deaf or hard of hearing, designing specially designed curriculum, counseling parents, aural rehabilitation, and methods of communication and instruction. In addition, they are required to engage in at least twelve weeks of supervised practicum experience with persons who are deaf and hard of hearing.

The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania now licenses teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing in the same law that provides licensure to speech-language pathologists and audiologists. Further, Senate Bill 515 provides that all three groups of professionals licensed by the Board of Hearing Examiners be considered "health service doctors" (Senate Bill 515). This designation allows teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing to bill third-party payers under codes recognized by the American Medical Association for evaluation and treatment of aural rehabilitation and communication. Ethical Principle IV f 2 of this code states "A licensee may not misrepresent training or competence" (PA Code 49§45 1994).

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Can I Read Between the Lines? An Outsider's Observations on the CEC-CED Joint Knowledge and Skills Statement

by

Rosemary Saur
National Technical Institute for the Deaf
at Rochester Institute of Technology
52 Lomb Memorial Drive
Rochester, NY 14623
Tel.: 716-475-2144 (V/T)
FAX: 716-475-6755
E-mail: resnsc@rit.edu

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The CEC-CED Joint Knowledge and Skills Statement sets forth a very comprehensive inventory of the qualifications needed by those who would teach Deaf and Hard of Hearing students. However, the Statement raised several issues in my mind that I believe are important to consider in the education of these students. Some of these issues appear to be addressed in the statement whereas others are either implicitly addressed or may not be considered. I wish to discuss the three topics of cultural flexibility, "over-servicing" and communication adaptability from my perspective as a researcher and administrator working with Deaf and Hard of Hearing college students. The topics addressed seem to be a particular challenge to the students with whom I am familiar.

Cultural Flexibility

In today's world the terms bilingual and bicultural (or multicultural) are commonly used to recognize the complex nature of American society. Recent studies indicate that a bilingual and/or bicultural individual is not simply the sum of two languages and/or two cultures but an unique individual with unique competencies. Ila Parasnis in a recent book (Parasnis, 1996) offers the argument that deaf persons are members of a bilingual-bicultural minority group in America:

> The perspective that deaf people should be primarily regarded as a cultural and language minority group rather than as individuals with an audiological disability is gathering support among educators, linguists, and researchers involved in the education of deaf people.

Certainly this statement is not true for some Deaf and, perhaps, most Hard-of-Hearing persons. However, Francois Grosjean (Grosjean, 1996) in his writing on bilingualism and biculturalism in that book asserts that most Deaf people meet the criteria for being considered bicultural:

1. They live in two cultures, home, school, workplace, etc.
2. They adapt at least in part, to both cultures.
3. They blend aspects of both cultures in their lives.

According to Grosjean, the blending of cultures occurs along a continuum from Deaf dominant to Hearing dominant. Being bilingual does not require that an individual be equally competent in both languages, as well. What does being bilingual and/or bicultural mean to a young Deaf person? Does it affect Hard of Hearing students, also?

As is often true when different cultures co-exist in the same community, we find that social behavior that is perceived as appropriate and acceptable in one setting may be seen as inappropriate in another. Carol Padden (Padden, 1996) explains this phenomenon as the "tension between cultures." That is, the bicultural individual does not live in the additive state of two cultures, but rather exists in the tension between the two cultures. Deaf and Hard of Hearing college students are often perceived as immature because of the behavior of some in dormitories and other college social settings. Such behavior is most criticized when it is noisy or otherwise felt as intrusive by hearing persons. They may also exhibit "hearing behavior" that is unacceptable in the Deaf community. The Statement rightly calls for the attention to cultural factors in teaching and classroom management for these students, but how do teachers help students to develop flexibility in dealing with the tension between cultures?

Isolation by "Over-servicing" - Fact or Fiction?

During the past three years I was a member of the Research Advisory Group for NTID. Part of that groups' assignment was to collect opinions from professionals who work with Deaf and Hard of Hearing children outside of the institute on the priorities of the research framework that had been set up for NTID. One concern that came back to the group was that of the isolation of Deaf and Hard of Hearing children by the practice of "over-servicing." Behind this concern was the observation that too often the child is separated from hearing peers and normal classroom experiences because of the number of professionals and services which require them to leave the classroom.

Research findings have reflected a similar problem for college students. I have conducted research on the experience of Deaf and Hard of Hearing college students in the regular classroom (e.g., Saur, Layne and Hurley, 1983). One theme that frequently arose from interview data was the ambivalence many students felt over receiving support services . On one hand they acknowledged their need and dependence on such services. On the other hand they resented being set apart from their hearing peers by these services. As one young Deaf woman put it,"...(they) made Deaf students too special."

At first, this idea of overservicing seems ludicrous. It is only recently that Deaf and Hard of Hearing children have begun to attain their rights to full and adequate educational support services. The question I have concluded, is really not whether a child is isolated by receiving too many services. It is more likely that the perceived problem arises from how and where necessary services are delivered.

I have gone on to link these observations to the on-going debate over the concepts of special education vs. mainstreaming vs. inclusion vs. full inclusion (Special Education Inclusion, 1996). The latter three concepts are defined as follows:

- Mainstreaming is the assumption that a disabled child will be put into the regular classroom only if he/she is able to "keep up" with the other students. The child is removed from the classroom for any needed services.
- Inclusion carries with it the commitment that a child will be educated to the maximum extent appropriate in the regular classroom and that most services will be brought to the child. It requires only that the child benefit from being in the classroom with other students, not keeping up.
- Full inclusion would require that all children be placed in the regular classroom and that all services be brought to them.

Cogent arguments are made against full inclusion for Deaf and Hard of Hearing children by experts in the field (see Cohen, 1995) and this paper is not intended as advocacy for that or any other concept. However, if some version of inclusion becomes the trend in education then teachers of Deaf and hard-of-hearing children will participate in multiple teaching/learning approaches that will change the way education is brought to these children. How do we prepare teachers to adapt to these changes? Or, if current practice prevails, how do teachers help to balance a child's need for services outside the classroom with that child's need for being in the classroom learning with other children? Will the practice of separating children into deaf-only special education classes continue?

Coping Skills

One of the goals we have in the support departments at NTID is to foster the development of strong self-advocacy and assertiveness skills in the students with whom we work. They need the ability to deal with what may often be an indifferent or even hostile world. Too often students come to us - and not only as freshmen - without a clear picture of what their needs are for support. Nor, do they know how to get that support once identified, expecting it to come to them or others to find it for them. Learning such skills should start long before a student enters college and would be extremely important for the young person who does not go on to post-secondary education.

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) puts the responsibility for identifying needs squarely on the shoulders of the disabled individual. It would, of course, fall to parents of young Deaf and Hard of Hearing children to advocate for them. But, as they grow and mature children need to learn how to advocate for themselves. To learn the appropriate use of support services is one thing To learn how to effectively advocate for oneself is a necessary additional skill. Also, Deaf children might well learn from experienced Deaf adults what to do, how to survive in situations where services are not available.

Communication Adaptation

This topic seems to be addressed at least in part in the Statement and I bring it up in this paper as much for emphasis and endorsement as anything. Yearly, we deal with the problem of student-to-student communication in our first quarter freshman seminar course. Too many of our students have no idea how to deal with other Deaf or Hard of Hearing persons who have different communication needs and modes of communication in a group such as exists in a classroom. Students who use only sign cannot deal with students who only speechread and vice versa. Emphasizing the need for students to have ongoing interactions with peers and role models who are Deaf or Hard of Hearing is a good thing. However, learning to adapt to and to accept differing communication styles is also a necessary skill. What do students do if they are both Deaf or Hard of Hearing , can't understand each other but yet have to work together?

Conclusion

One of the most compelling aspects of the Statement is its implicit, sometimes hidden recognition that education takes place within a social/cultural context and also becomes an instrument of change in that context. Thomas Spady (1975) in an old article detailed this concept by calling education, "The Socialization of Competence." By recognizing the various possible forms of bilingualism and biculturalism in Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing persons we are making progress toward recognizing them as complete individuals, not as deficient hearing people. Educating young Deaf persons in a way that makes them proud of their uniqueness empowers them to be flexible and deal with the tension that naturally exists between cultures.

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The Relationship Between ASL Skill and English Literacy

by

Michael Strong
University of California
San Francisco, CA
Tel.: 415-338-1077
FAX: 408-659-7045
E-mail: mastrong@sprynet.com

Philip Prinz
San Francisco State University
1600 Holloway Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94132
Tel.: 415-338-7655
FAX: 415-338-0566
E-mail: pm@sfsu.edu

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This paper describes the first three stages of a four-year study whose purpose is to examine the relationship between ASL skills and English literacy among residential school deaf children aged 8 to 15 years. During the first stage we developed test instruments, refined data collection procedures, planned sampling procedures, and tested a small sub-sample of subjects (Prinz & Strong, 1995). The findings from this pilot study confirmed that the direction of our planned inquiry was legitimate, and that the measurement instruments were both reliable and valid. The purpose of the second stage was to address the following research questions:

1. *What is the relationship between ASL competence and English literacy among Deaf students, aged 8-15 years?*
2. *Do deaf children of deaf parents outperform deaf children of hearing parents in ASL skills and English literacy skills?*

Stage three of the project asks the question:

3. *Are changes in ASL ability related to changes in English literacy skills over a twelve-month period?*

Subjects

One hundred and sixty deaf students were recruited from the pool of students at the school site with no other handicapping conditions who fell within the age parameters defined by the study. The subjects were divided into two age groups, Group 1 ages 8-11, Group 2 ages 12 and over. The distribution of subjects by age and maternal hearing status is found in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of Subjects

	8-11	12-15	Total
Deaf Mother	14	26	40
Hearing Mother	42	73	115
Total	57	103	155

Measurements

There are two sets of language-related tests, one for ASL and one for English Literacy. ASL skills were assessed using the Test of American Sign Language (Prinz & Strong, 1994). A draft of the test was sent to five nationally recognized deaf linguists. The final version incorporated their feedback. English literacy was assessed using selected and revised subtests from the *Woodcock-Johnson Psychoeducational Test Battery (WJ-R)*, and the *Test of Written Language (TOWL).*

Non-verbal IQ was measured using the *Matrix Analogies Test*. In addition, parents or guardians completed a questionnaire regarding language use at home, and other background information was collected from school records.

Procedures

Students were taken to a testing room during the school day for two sessions of one hour each during Years 2 and 3 of the study. The ASL tests were conducted during one hour and the English literacy tests and the MAT during the other. Testing order was randomized. Instructions were given on videotape in ASL. The ASL tests were conducted by deaf researchers fluent in ASL, the English tests by hearing researchers who were also highly proficient in ASL. No hearing persons were present during the ASL testing. All signed responses were videotaped.

The ASL tests were scored by deaf researchers and the English test by signing hearing researchers. Inter-rater reliability was better than 96% in all cases.

Analysis and Results

In order to address the first research question regarding the relationship between ASL skills and English literacy, sub-test scores were standardized, subjects were divided into three ASL levels (high, medium, and low), and Analyses of Covariance were run to test the hypotheses that the higher ASL levels outperformed the lower levels in English literacy, while controlling for age and IQ. Tests were run separately for the two age groups and according to maternal hearing status.

ANCOVA results are shown in Table 2. As can be seen, the tests were all significant except for the two subgroups involving students with deaf mothers. In all cases, the high ASL groups significantly outscored the medium and low groups in English literacy (Table 3). Medium ASL groups outperformed the low groups, but not among the younger students.

Table 2: Summary ANCOVA Results on ASL Level and English Literacy

Group	F-ratio	p value
All	21.6	.000
8 - 11	6.7	.003
12 - 15	17.2	.000
DM		NS
HM	14.5	.000
8 -11, DM		NS
8 - 11, HM	7.5	.002
12 - 15, HM	9.8	.000

DM = Deaf Mother; HM = Hearing Mother; NS = Not Significant

In order to test the second research question, whether DP children outperform HP children in ASL and English literacy, a series of three more ANCOVAs were run, for the whole sample and the two age groups. Again, age and IQ were controlled. Both hypotheses were confirmed: Students with deaf mothers scored significantly higher than students with hearing mothers in tests of English literacy and ASL.

Given these findings, we were interested in asking whether DP children outperform HP children as a result of ASL skill. This we could test by holding ASL level constant and comparing DP and HP students within ASL level. The results showed that at the medium and high levels there was no difference between DP and HP students, indicating that even a medium level of ASL ability appears to negate any

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advantage from being born into a deaf family when it comes to acquiring English literacy.

As to the third question, whether a change in ASL level after one year is related to a change in English literacy, we compared gain scores in ASL with gain scores in English literacy for the group as a whole and for the various subgroups. Taken together, subjects showed a small but statistically insignificant correlation between ASL improvement and English literacy improvement. A testing after two years will reveal whether change in ASL ability over a longer period of time is accompanied by an equivalent change in English literacy skill.

Interpretation and Discussion

From the analysis and results presented in the previous section, a clear, consistent, and statistically significant relationship between ASL skill and English literacy is evident, and that, when controlled for age and PIQ, the subjects perform at a higher level of English literacy if their ASL skills are well developed than if those skills are lacking. The post-hoc analyses reveal that English performance improves even with a moderate level ASL skill. Furthermore, when ASL level is held constant, DP children outperform HP children only at the lowest level.

The generally very strong relationship between ASL skill and English literacy may be interpreted in three ways. One is that ASL skill allows for better acquisition of English. A second is that English literacy ability promotes increased ASL skill. A third is that some other factor is intervening to influence both.

Given a setting where ASL is the language of social communication and our control of age, IQ, and school, and the large sample taken from among many classrooms, we feel the most plausible explanation for the relationship is that ASL skill influences English literacy acquisition.

Furthermore, our data suggest that the advantage of being from a deaf family may result largely from fluency in ASL, for, when ASL ability is held constant, DP children's superiority in English almost disappears. Thus the long-standing question of why DP children tend to outperform HP children academically may be resolved.

These findings do not suggest that ASL knowledge is the only path to successful acquisition of English literacy for deaf children, and, indeed, they may not generalize beyond an environment such as the school for the deaf studied here, where ASL is in common use.

Multicultural Needs of Students Who are Deaf: The Bilingual Experiences of a Deaf Native American

by

James Woodenlegs
(Native American Name is Morning Star Traveling)
8600 Modesto, NE
Albuquerque, NM 87122
Tel.: 505-821-7351 (T/V)
FAX: 505-821-7351

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Personal:

- James Woodenlegs (Native American name is Morning Star Traveling)
- Tribe - Northern Cheyenne tribe in Lame Deer, Montana
- Blood - Cheyenne/French
- School - Montana School for the Deaf and Blind in Great Falls, Montana
- Wife and three children
- Heritage chief: Around 1860s, this title passed to my uncle, and I will be next in line to become chief.

Experience and Interests:

- Burn the cedar open and close ceremony
- First National Multicultural Interpreter
- Native American Church
- Native American Sign Language
- Inter Tribal Deaf Council Officer and Board Member
- Sweat Lodge
- Fast
- Story Teller/Lecturer about Native Americans in any school
- Knowledge of Reservation

Employer:

- Work for CVI Laser in Albuquerque, New Mexico
  Optic Filter Manufacturing Technician

Advice for Teachers of Deaf Native American Students:

NATIVE AMERICAN TEAM

by

Jonathan Hopkins, Mark Azure, Tupper Dunbar, Linda Carroll,
Melaine McKay-Cody and James Woodenlegs

A. Cultural Background and Knowledge
    1. Having Cultural Background
        a. Native American
        b. Non-Native-Educated Re: Culture(s) (Any Race) learned about culture
    2. Historical Perspective
        a. European Invasion - Divide and Conquer
            - War - Genocide (Cultural)
            - Small Pox - Blankets
            - Forced Sterilization of our women

    - Medical - Experiments
    - Termination
    - Commodities
    - Political Prisoners
    - Trail of Tears (Pogroms)?
    - Concentration Camps
    - Slavery
    - No Freedom of Religion

b. Diet Changes
  - High Incidence Diabetes
    - Blindness
    - Amputations
  - Alcoholism
  - Animals and Crops Damaged
  - Environment Poisoned

c. European's Perspective on History

d. BIA
Cultural Genocide

e. Missionaries - New Agers
Nukes - Poisoning
Mining - Environment
Factories - Birth Defects

f. Stereotypes (Myths)
    - Sexual
    - First Thanksgiving
    - Scalping

g. European view - on Museum

h. Destruction of Games and Crops

I. Treaties

j. Paternalism

k. Oppression

l. Media Portrayal

m. Eurocentric Historical Perspective

n. Educational History
    - Am Indian Deaf
    - Hearing - Indian Boarding Schools
    - Mission Schools
    - Deaf - Deaf Schools (Dominate White Students)
    - Or deaf stay on Reservation

3. Positive Contributions...

a. Respect for Mother Earth (Ecology)
    - Environmental Concern
    - Recycle

b. Medical Breakthroughs
  - Result of Indian Experiments
c. Navajo (and others) Code Talkers
d. Skyscrapers - Construction
e. Arts/Crafts
f. Medicine (i.e., Aspirin)
g. U.S. form of Government Constitution
h. Agricultural/Horticultural
I. Foods (i.e., corn, coffee, chocolate, etc.)
j. Rubber
k. Native American Indian Sign Language
  - Bilingualism - Indian Operated Schools and Newspapers

4. Cognitive Style...
   a. Community, not individual
   b. Relation to all things/creatures
   c. Indian Time
      - Different Type of "Punctuality"
      - Past, Present, Future - Not Disconnected
   d. Respect Nature
   e. Communication Styles
      - Turn taking - long pause
      - Think - speak - think - speak
5. Cultural Specific...
   a. All Indians NOT the same
      - Different Clans, Nations (tribes), Regions, Reservations, Urban, Rural, Regalia, Degrees of Assimilation
6. Specific Cultural Vocabularies...
   a. Regalia (Costume vs. Regalia or Dance Clothes)
   b. Racial Epithets
      - Injun
      - Redskin
      - Blanket Ass
      - Prairie Nigger
      - Red Nigger
      - Woods Nigger
      - Savage
      - Squaw
      - Brave
      - Scalp
   c. Whites = Pioneers, Discoverers, Explorers
      Indians = Hostiles, Savages, War-Like (Today - Militant)
      Archaeologist/Grave diggers, Ghouls
      "Indian Dig Whiteman's Body - Go to jail

White Dig Indian's Body - Get Ph.D."
"Indian - Hostile when they defend their rights"
"White People Defend - Get Honors for Bravery"
"White Win - Victors! Indian Win - Massacre!"
"Columbus Discover America"
  - Discover vs. Invasion

d. Terms of Respect - Uncle, Aunt, Sir/Madam
  - Terms of Relationship not limited to blood. Call each other by relatives.

e. Signs
  - Drum (use hands inappropriate - not an African Drum)
  - Pejorative Signs
  - Scalp
  - Pow - wow (woo - woo w/ feather on head)
  - War call with hand on mouth
  - War Paint
  - Where Tipi? (For stereotype and reservation)

f. Learn Values of Consumer and allow for differences within those of same nation
  a. Ceremonies
    - Male/Female rules
      Sweat Lodge
    - Nude
      Pow - Wow
    - Casual - Not Formal
    - No "Wanna Be" Styles
      - Excessive Jewelry
      - Not involved in the culture (NI) (?)
      - Indian Interpreters
      - Jewelry, Regalia Appropriate
    - Formal attire for: Eurocentric Standards
    - Native influenced - Okay

8. Food...
  a. Geographically specific (varies)
    - Tribal Specific
  b. Celebrations (same as above*)
    - Male in front, female in back
  c. Ceremonies (same as above*)
    - Old traditional way/Christian Influence
  d. Gender Rules Vary - Gender specific sometimes
    - Female legs covered
    - Storytelling male terps if male speaker
    - Moontime issues

9. Time, Touch, Contact...
   a. Indian Time
      - Don't leave if there is no one at location (Appears to be a "No Show"). Allow time for exaggeration during events/ceremonies. Allow time for delays.
      - Show up at time stated (i.e., Pos - Wow stated to start at 11 a.m., may actually start at 12:30 p.m.)
      - Don't leave at appointed (stated) time.
   b. Touch
      - Light hand shake
      - variety of traditional handshakes
      - Only hug if necessary
      - Don't touch dancer's Regalia

   * Person with Regalia must make the move to hug
   c. Contact
      - Eye contact often considered rude (varies regarding age, Urban, Reservation)
      - Interpreting Prayer
      - Non Native Interpreter to gaze down - while Indian eyes look up during prayer.
      - Don't look at hearing Indians eyes during the conversation (show respect).
   d. Space
      - Interpreters not allowed to stand in middle of the circle (i.e., During Pow - wow)
      - Don't stand too close to drum
      - Sit/stand by MC or in front of reserved section - not to distant or opposite side
      - Male Interpreter - stand on stage with person who has the Mic.
      - Women outside of circle
      - Other ceremonies not even allowed access
   e. Social Protocols and Tabbos
      - Pay attention to direction of dancers in circle (opposite - taboo)
      - Must accept any gift given
      - All are involved
      - Remove idea of "I'm not involved, I'm neutral." If invited to participate
      - accept the honor
      - Ceremonies involving food (Feast)
        Expect to eat meat (RE: Vegetarian)
      - If medicine man says 'Don't Interpret This" - Don't. Be quiet and obey.
      - Medicine man will invite interpreter to be involved by request.

- Some events/ceremonies/storytelling must be gender specific.
- No photo's, video, audiotaping during ceremonies, Pow - Wow's Events
  - only with permission of MC and Individuals
- Interpreters bring family/friends not allowed to go through circle
- Don't pick up any feather that has fallen
- Don't snoop/search through lodges or belongings. Campers are not museum pieces.

10+12. Geographic Issues
a. Regional Styles
- City/Urban/Rural/Reservation
- Interpreters should be aware and know the nations of area
- Cultures of those nations
- Political issues of area
b. Reservation and Urban
- Two different worlds

11. Implications of Class Identification...
a. Social
- FBI/MBI Metis
  Mestizoys
- Clans
- Bands
- Societies
b. Economic
- Spectrum (Rich and Poor)
- Traditional/Christian/Both
- Urban/Reservation/Rural
- AIM, NAC, BIA
- CDIB Status/Controversy
c. Literacy
- Some have their own writing their language (read/write)
- Bilingual newspapers and literature or not current written language
- L1/L2 Issues
d. Education
- From Ph.D. to no education

(Speak fluent English to little English - Same with Native Language)

RESOURCES

VIDEOS
500 Nations
Pow Wow Highway
Incident at Oglala

AUTHORS
John Powell
Angie Debo
Dee Brown
Ward Churchill
Hugh Scott
Robert Lowie
Marcia Campbell

TEXTS
Indians 'R' Us
Lies My Teacher Told Me
Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee
Killing Custer
Mankiller
Half Breed

FICTION
Linda Hogan/Robert Conley
N. Scott Monaday
_____ Grinnell
Vine Deloria
Sara Winnechua - Piaute
Leslie Mikwio

HOW?

- Guest lecture(s) - Panel of Native and Native Deaf
- Field Trips
- Host a Pow - Wow
- Teach Indian Sign Language
- Refer to I.D.C. - Newsletter/Local Chapter
- Mentor with Native American
- Establish an "Exchange Program" - Seniors with Freshmen
- Pre-requisite course - "Multicultural History"
- Books, Videotapes
- "Multicultural Sensitivity" Workshop
- Write a Paper - "Native American Culture vs. Native American Culture"
    - How they are different
- Refer to Native American cultural centers/sites
    - Newsletter, organizations, mailing list

CED STANDARDS

1. Philosophical, Historical, and Legal Foundations of Special Education
2. Characteristics of Learners
3. Assessment, Diagnosis, and Evaluation
4. Instructional Content and Practice
5. Planning and Managing the Teaching and Learning Environment
6. Managing Student Behavior and Social Interaction Skills
7. Communication and Collaborative Partnership
8. Professionalism and Ethical Practices